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ABSTRACT

This handbook was developed to aid teachers, teacher aides, paraprofessionals, and teacher trainers. The overview of the readings is both content oriented and structure oriented. Cognitive and affective styles of learning are identified and related to bilingual education; the new research in this area is found to raise significant questions on teaching and learning. The strategies spelled out are not oriented to a specific subject area, but are intended as a guide for technical assistance in the construction of units and curriculum in a variety of subject areas. The overall aim of the handbook is to offer the bilingual educator a greater range of alternatives for planning, developing, and assessing curriculum. The following articles are included: (1) "The Systems-Context Approach to Curriculum Theory in Bilingual Education" (Antonio Simoes, Jr.); (2) "The Statement of Goals and Objectives in Bilingual Education" (Arlene Duelfer); (3) "Teacher Strategies: The Role of Audio-Visual Methodology in Bilingual Education" (Gregoire Chabot); (4) "Structure and Content in the Design of Bilingual-Multicultural Curriculum" (Martha Montero); and (5) "Procedures in Curriculum Evaluation" (Mae Chu-Chang). (Author/JB)

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHER HANDBOOK

Strategies for the Design of
Multicultural Curriculum

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bilingual education teacher handbook

strategies for the design of multicultural curriculum

Martha Montero, *Editor*

National Assessment and Dissemination
Center for Bilingual/Bicultural Education
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02140

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Contents

INTRODUCTION 1

THE SYSTEMS-CONTEXT APPROACH TO CURRICULUM THEORY IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION 7
Antonio Simoes, Jr.

THE STATEMENT OF GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION 27
Arlene Duelfer

TEACHER STRATEGIES: THE ROLE OF AUDIO-VISUAL METHODOLOGY IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION 41
Gregoire Chabot

STRUCTURE AND CONTENT IN THE DESIGN OF BILINGUAL-MULTICULTURAL CURRICULUM 61
Martha Montero

PROCEDURES IN CURRICULUM EVALUATION 93
Mae Chu-Chang

APPENDICES 99

BIBLIOGRAPHY 117

FEEDBACK INFORMATION FORM 125

Preface

The National Assessment and Dissemination Center at Lesley College in Cambridge, Massachusetts is pleased to publish and disseminate the "Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook" — a product developed by the highly skilled bilingual staff at the Boston University Training and Resource Center of the National Network of Centers for Bilingual Education.

It is my belief that this cooperative effort typifies the goal of the "networking process"; utilizing the diverse skills of separate but interdependent bilingual centers to produce a useful tool for the training and preparation of bilingual educators for the classroom.

Special acknowledgement is due Dr. Antonio Simoes, Jr., Director of the Boston University Training and Resource Center, for his consistent support in seeing this publication through to completion.

In addition, Martha Montero's energy and enthusiasm in supervising the editorial process and acting as liaison with the TRC staff made it a pleasure to cooperate with her on the project.

I would like to thank Peter Calvet, layout and design specialist, and David Rivard, copy editor, of the NADC staff for the attention to detail and the long hours they devoted to this text.

John R. Correiro
Director, NADC
Lesley College

Introduction

The proliferation of bilingual materials along with the development of packaged information is leading to a reformulation of present needs for curriculum design in bilingual education.

By surveying existing materials, it becomes apparent that these needs are: 1) the lack of specific bilingual/bicultural materials, 2) the lack of materials to teach teachers to be developers of such materials, particularly for junior high school, and adult education; and 3) the lack of pilot-tested materials which have been regionally and then nationally disseminated. The lack of teacher strategies for the use and needs of specific students add to the above mentioned demand. This is further compounded by the slow growth of bilingual education curriculum design which is relatively new in its pedagogical and theoretical implementations.

For many teachers who have recently entered the field of bilingual education, as well as for those who have been working in non-bilingual education settings, the role of bilingual education within the context of their classroom has become an important issue. Many are seeking technical advice on how and with what materials to teach bilingual children, young adults and adults. Questions concerning the role of the bilingual teacher and the strategies involved in developing practical materials are often raised. Some teachers are even questioning the materials which they are presently assigned and find it difficult to know what to look for in a bilingual curriculum. Others would like to add a bilingual component to their regular curriculum.

One answer for many teachers has been to attend mini-courses, in service training sessions, workshops, and weekend programs which will enable them to develop their own ideas concerning bilingual education curriculum. Another has been to attend classes in bilingual teacher training programs. However, for those who are not so fortunate as to have access to bilingual curriculum programs taught by experts, the development of new methods and materials becomes a trial and error process. In frustration, teachers may simply resign themselves to working within the scope of the commercially-made materials. Unfortunately, what is overlooked by many teachers is that the information which they seek in developing their materials may often be found within their class-

room — it is to be found in their own experiences, as well as in their students' experiences. Information from culturally diverse students is a resource which too often lies untapped in the classroom just as teachers' experiences often remain untapped when curriculum developers generate materials.

Stemming from our Center's participation in the field, the teacher strategies of this handbook have been designed to answer the questions and identify some of the needs of the teachers in bilingual education.

Teachers presently involved in Title VII programs and school administration contemplating bilingual education have raised some important questions at workshops, mini-courses, and teacher-training courses. Some of these questions concerning curriculum development are synthesized as follows:

1. What secondary school materials are available?
2. Are all subject areas in bilingual education taught?
3. What teacher-training materials are available?
4. Can bilingual education materials be regionally adapted?
5. How accurate and reliable are commercially-made materials dealing with bilingual education?
6. Are commercial materials ideal for bilingual education in terms of the role of language in bilingual curriculum design?

Many teachers pose the following questions:

1. Are there any ways in which a teacher can distinguish between learning disability and language acquisition problems in students?
2. What is standard language, non-standard language, correct vs. incorrect language?
3. What are dialects and do they differ from the standard language?
4. Can one simply translate materials from one language to another?

Questions about the role of culture in teaching and bilingual curriculum design also abound. Some of the major questions are:

1. Is there any ready-made checklist available for identifying cultural behaviors?
2. Is there value to cultural stereotyping? If so, where does it stop?
3. What is the role of self-concept and culture?

Obviously, many of these questions will not be answered by this handbook, but the teachers will be guided to finding the answers which most appropriately fit their own classroom situation.

The focus of the readings will be in four areas: Curriculum (methods, materials, content); the role of the systems-context approach in teaching and in bilingual curriculum; the role of goals and objectives in teaching and bilingual curriculum design; and the role of media in bilingual education and the evaluation components for bilingual materials.

Through the teacher strategies which will be stressed, a teacher will be provided with:

1. A frame of reference,
2. alternatives in mehods and materials in bilingual education,
3. a sample unit plan,
4. a sample lesson plan with multilingual/multicultural emphasis,
5. process and product thinking

6. evaluation rationale for already used commercial materials, as well as for developing teacher-made materials

The grade and age levels to which this type of orientation applies are to be determined by the teacher prior to the planning stage. The technical emphasis of the handbook is applicable to young adults, adults learning ESL, and others interested in bilingual education.

As educators, our position regarding bilingual/bicultural education is one which considers bilingual education as a method of instruction and not another subject. We regard bilingual education as a total education, relevant to both the culturally diverse and the English-speaking students. The bilingual teacher is first and foremost an educator concerned with offering quality education to all students. It is our belief that teachers need to be specialized in a given field with bilingual/multicultural expertise as an additional qualitative factor.

Our justification for this consideration stems from several assumptions which underlie curriculum teaching in bilingual settings. Some of these are assumptions about language, linguistics, culture, society, community and individual self-concept. While it is not our intent to deal with these areas at great length in this handbook, we nevertheless will cover those aspects which are essential to bilingual teaching. Unless the teacher considers cultural diversity and its implications for the classroom, language varieties and what these mean in terms of standard and non-standard language, the individual self-concept versus the group's standard and cultural stereotypes within the content and context of the classroom, he/she is not prepared to deal with the complexities involved in a bilingual/bicultural setting.

In order to meet these needs and answer some of the aforementioned questions, teacher strategies in curriculum design of bilingual education have been developed. Our educational approach is an attempt to meet not only the needs of students and teachers, but also to serve as a catalyst between the teacher, the student, and the community to achieve better communication in the bilingual environment. While this handbook may not be a cure-all, a compendium for each educational setting, nor a neatly packaged kit from which teachers can construct a step-by-step ideal curriculum, it will offer technical assistance and express theoretical concerns presently held by bilingual educators. These educators address themselves within certain constraints to the idea that a teacher should be able to develop bilingual/multicultural curriculum materials which are relevant to the classroom given certain technical assistance and clarification of purpose. Our goal is not toward drastic changes in the development of present materials, but toward the process of adapting, rejecting and reformulating presently used materials into teacher-made materials. Our intended purpose is to develop teacher awareness of those areas that underlie bilingual education, namely, a) the role of the systems-context approach; b) the role in curriculum design goals and objectives; c) the development of pedagogical skills in bilingual education. Each of these areas will be dealt with at some length in the readings.

In our understanding of bilingualism/multiculturalism, we include the idea that curriculum development requires teaching those strategies that will enable the learner to function appropriately in more than one language and culture. Bilingual/bicultural education is in itself an area which covers more than language proficiency. Varieties of language and issues concerning the home language versus the school language need to be considered. One may be bilingual without necessarily being equally bicultural so that one may develop a set of criteria for certain language use in specific occasions and contexts, as well as certain cultural behaviors for given occasions. Yet, both of these areas are intertwined. For these reasons, this manual assumes that the teacher will consider some decisions on the extent of language use and proficiency along with the cultural behavior and norms at the onset of the development of the curriculum.

This handbook has been developed to aid teachers, teacher aides, para-professionals, and those who are teaching in the field as teacher-trainers. The overview of the readings is not only content-oriented, but also is structure-oriented. Aside from content, the readings will consider process as well. The cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains play an equally important role in bilingual education curriculum. Cognitive styles of learning and affective styles have been identified by Witkins, Ramirez and Castaneda, and have been related to bilingual education; and while the research in this area is relatively new, significant questions on teaching and learning are being raised. The strategies spelled out herein are not oriented to any specific subject area. Instead, it is a guide for technical assistance in the construction of modules (units) and curriculum of a not given subject area. The teacher may adapt or modify his/her subject area within the structure which is outlined in the following chapters. The strategies presented can offer the teacher in bilingual education a greater range of alternatives for planning, developing, and assessing curriculum.

Aside from learning what the components are in developing a bilingual curriculum, the teacher should be able to develop a usable curriculum with functional samples. Continuation from one to the next component will be based on the preliminary mastery of the previous chapters. In essence, Teacher Strategies for the Design of Multicultural Curriculum is a book of readings which comprise much of the present thinking in bilingual education. It is the compilation of educators in the field who daily address the issues of bilingual education. The basic structure of the book follows a theoretical consideration that can be applied to practice helpful to the reader. Both the process and product are explained, and the teacher should be able to develop a knowledge of: competency, learner objectives for the competency, related readings, learner activities, evaluation of the objectives, and references.

The editor wishes to thank the authors who shared in the development of this handbook. In addition, Dean Paul Warren of Boston University School of Education must be acknowledged for his encouragement and support. Lucy T. Briggs and Margarita Perez-Jones were especially

helpful in editing and in providing constructive criticisms and general advice. Special appreciation must also be extended to George de George and other staff members of the National Assessment and Dissemination Center for Bilingual Education, in particular for permission to use their materials checklist. Finally, I express my gratitude to Maria Elena Pacheco, who managed the production of the manuscript — organizing, editing, and typing often barely intellegible drafts. Concetta Sortino also aided this project — typing and retyping pages of manuscript.

Martha Montero
Bilingual Resource and Training Center
Boston University
March, 1978

The Systems-Context Approach To Curriculum Theory in Bilingual Education

Antonio Simoes, Jr.

Foreword

The systems-context approach to curriculum theory in bilingual education is a model to be used by teachers in developing a rationale for curriculum construction. The systems-context approach attempts to structure valued knowledge into an understandable paradigm. This approach serves as a guide for teachers to evaluate already formulated curricula or in the development of teacher-made materials.

Too often high expectations are placed on a teacher's performance and, in many instances, teachers rely on their manuals as an end-all in the teaching process. Research suggests, however, that this alone cannot explain what happens, or what is to be done when there are other unidentified socio-cultural variables that occur in the classroom.

The systems-context approach is a theoretical procedure for clarifying and implementing the pedagogical mechanisms involved in the design of a multicultural approach to schooling. In addition, the systems-context approach provides an umbrella under which specific topics related primarily to curriculum design and implementation will be developed and discussed.

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore several assumptions from the field of curriculum which have relevance to bilingual education. The basic tenets are: (1) that knowledge is culturally bound, (2) that awareness of cultural prescription postulates is needed before the application of knowledge is made, (3) that knowledge is schematized as a system, (4) that this system is culturally bound, and (5) that the construction of a multicultural curriculum must take into account valued knowledge.

Social theorists, as well as educators, have been discussing and attempting to define curriculum models. Moreover, as the field of multicultural education matures, a range of new terms is now found in education circles which seem to negate cultural variables that may or may not play a role within curriculum design. The systems-context approach becomes a viable model for exploring those variables affecting the learning process. For example, first or second language acquisition, cognitive styles and matching models, the poetic form as it relates to culture, rural values as they relate with urban and metropolitan values, field independent v. field sensitive learning behaviors, pedagogical principles as they relate to classroom management, ideological variations in

specific cultures and social class, content that is culturally bound, are but a few examples of what a curriculum theorist may have to contend with in the schooling process.

The hypothesis of this chapter is that the systems-context approach to bilingual education curriculum is a legitimate approach that prescribes and/or describes the distribution of knowledge as it pertains to learning sequences or learning encounters.

This chapter will explore five integrated and yet separate areas that the curriculum theorists must confront in a multicultural situation. (See Figure I) These areas are:

1) Systems
2) Context
3) Pedagogical
4) Ideological
5) Existential

The Systems-Context Approach to Bilingual Education

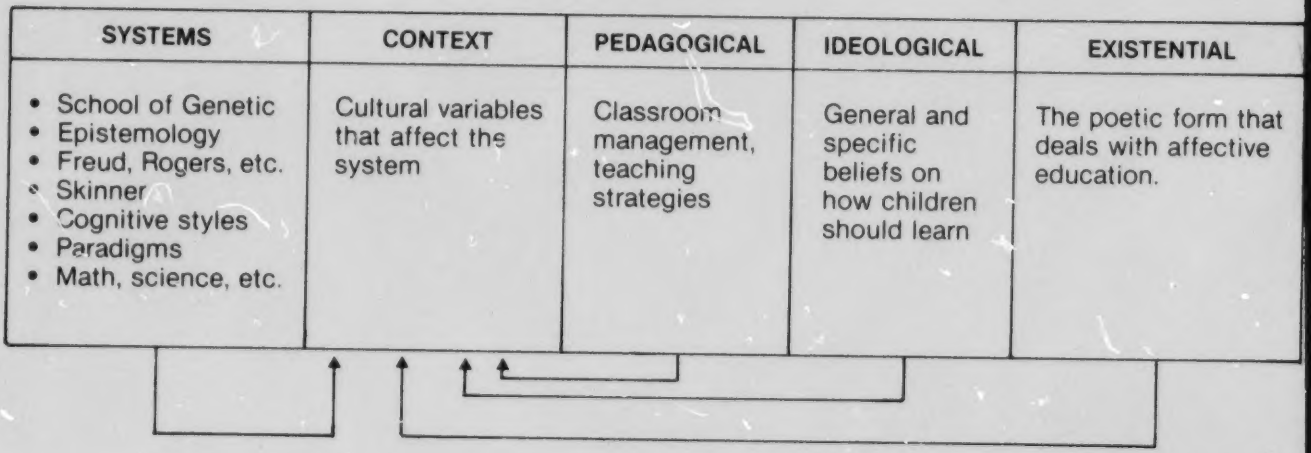
Systems are defined here as any logical interpretation that can describe man's reality in a social and/or physical environment. That is, a system is a schematization that logically explains a certain set of behaviors that can be universally applied by either genetic and/or psychological stages. It is assumed that a system in itself is free from normative theory; however, normative theory prescribes how the system will function. This will be explained as this chapter develops.

One example of this is the Geneva School *vis-a-vis* assumptions as they relate to Piaget's genetic epistemological, developmental stages. Here Piaget's paradigm denotes that all children pass through specific stages on how they view the world. Another example is in behavior modification. Behavior modification assumes that there are positive, negative and neutral reinforcers that can change a behavior if they are applied in a logical sequence. Again, the system of behavior modification can be universally applied to the human behavior.

There are some critics in the field of bilingual education who deny the "Skinnerian approach" as an "Anglo" model which cannot fit the ethnic society. This in our point of view is sheer nonsense. For example, in the area of program instruction, several learning modules in the sciences, social sciences, and the arts could be developed in any society under the assumption that the curriculum writer or test developer can identify the normative variables that fit or prescribe the positive, negative, and/or neutral behaviors. Hence, it is suggested that new construction of behavior modifications be satisfied as a team problem. That is, the team would have to consist of a social scientist with expertise of specific cultural groups and educators who are competent in curriculum design as it refers to programmed instruction.

Another example of a system approach can readily be developed around Freud's super ego, the ego and the id. As a system, the super ego imposes a moral structure of what is right and what is wrong. The id directs itself to the pleasure-seeking principle of the human being, and

FIGURE 1
Systems-Context Approach



the ego is the compromise of the super ego and ego which in turn allows people to function in everday life — in other words, the ego "manifests" the resolution of the id and the super ego in terms of "actions." The doer may be conscious of these actions; however, the actions may be unconscious in terms of a known resolution. A person may state, "I know this is right because it is right." But, if one asks for the "psychoanalytical meaning or cultural anthropological meaning" of why it is right, most individuals unless they are based in the social sciences, could not respond to the question.

The relevance of the system-context approach to curriculum theory rests on the premise that curriculum theorists must know: (1) the kinds of knowledge that exists in a society, and more specifically, (2) the kinds of valued knowledge (normative theory) that exist in a society with respect to learning encounters.

In the bilingual field, general as well as specific valued knowledge must be an integral part of the bilingual curriculum. Hence, in reviewing the systems approach to bilingual education curriculum, it may be stated that systems can in general be universally applied to learning. It is true, however, that "learning theories" here are not discussed in the traditional mode, but as a variety of systematic theories, from Skinner to Freud, from Erickson to Tyler, that apply to the human condition.

The Context Approach to Bilingual Education

It is obvious that systems cannot stand on their own. That is, any system (social, developmental, clinical, learning, etc.), must be applied to a cultural framework. It must be assumed that all learning must be analyzed from the point of view of cultural variables and that no learning theory can be applied without the knowledge of the culture.

In order to understand what context is in bilingual education, it is understood that any systematic process will need to be culturally adaptive to a generic cognitive orientation of a specific culture so that the bilingual person cues in the known environment around him. However, this by no means implies that the learning material must be culturally relevant. If we were to state that only culturally relevant materials should be used, then we would possibly negate learning in new domains and the child would remain static in his/her own culture.

FIGURE 2

Classification of Cognitive Categories

KNOWLEDGE
- Knowledge of specifics
- Knowledge of terminology
- Knowledge of specific facts

KNOWLEDGE OF WAYS AND MEANS OF DEALING WITH SPECIFICS
- Knowledge of conventions
- Knowledge of trends and sequences
- Knowledge of classification and categories

Knowledge of criteria
Knowledge of methodology

KNOWLEDGE OF UNIVERSALS AND ABSTRACTIONS IN A FIELD
Knowledge of principles and generalizations
Knowledge of theories and structures

COMPREHENSION
Translation
Interpretation
Extrapolation

APPLICATION

ANALYSIS
Analysis of elements
Analysis of relationships
Analysis of organizational principles

SYNTHESIS
Production of a unique communication
Production of a plan or proposed set of operations
Derivation of a set abstract relations

EVALUATION
Judgements in terms of internal evidence
Judgements in terms of external criteria

SOURCE: Condensed from Benjamin S. Bloom, J. Thomas Hastings, and George F. Madaus, Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971, pp. 271-273

Bloom's taxonomies (See Figures 2 and 3) suggest that cognitive and affective behaviors are separate domains. However, distinguishing differences in these two domains implies that cognitive and affective behaviors are mutually exclusive functions of behavior. It seems that both taxonomies fail to tap certain variables of human behaviors for bilingual students. Factors such as language, social class, rural and metropolitan life styles, theological beliefs, or anything that is valued knowledge may enhance or interfere in the learning process. While it is my conviction that these divisions are simplistic and analytically false, cognition (the system of knowing) and affective behavior (*valued* knowledge and not feelings) are really *one* act of behavior. It becomes apparent that all the classifications of the cognitive domain must imply a social reality which in turn is created by the valued human condition of what is known. Cognitive evaluation is the characterization of that valued system. The term "objectivity" must be understood within its own context of subjectivity/objectivity before one can accept its valued assumption.

FIGURE 3
Classification of Affective Categories

Receiving (attending) Sensitive to the existence of a given condition, phenomenon, situation, or problem.

AWARENESS
Conscious recognition of the existence of a given condition, phenomenons, situation, or problem (e.g. awareness of aesthetic factors in architecture).

WILLINGNESS TO RECEIVE
Willingness to take notice of a given phenomenon (etc.) rather than to avoid it (e.g. listing attentively to what others have to say).

CONTROLLED OR SELECTED ATTENTION
Differentiation, selection, or discrimination among various aspects of a phenomenon and its implications (e.g. listens to music with some discrimination as to mood and effect).
Responding reaction to a phenomenon through overt response, or doing some with or as a result of a given phenomenon.

ACQUIESCENCE IN RESPONDING
Compliance with a given condition (e.g. obeys school regulations).

WILLINGNESS TO RESPOND
Voluntary action in relation to a given phenomenon (e.g. voluntarily reads the daily newspaper and discusses current affairs).

SATISFACTION IN RESPONSE
Enjoyment in acting on a given phenomenon (e.g. enjoys playing the piano or reading literature).
Valuing: Attachment of worth or belief in a phenomenon with some degree of consistency.

ACCEPTANCE OF A VALUE
Belief in a proposition, condition, doctrine, etc. with reasonable but tentative certainty (e.g. agrees that women should receive equal pay for equal work).

PREFERENCE FOR A VALUE
Belief in the desirability or necessity of a preposition, condition, etc. over corresponding alternatives (e.g. deliberately seeks the views of others on controversial issues with a view toward forming one's own opinion.)

COMMITMENT TO A VALUE
Conviction and full involvement in a cause, principle, a doctrine (e.g. writes letters to editor protesting censorship in any form).
Organization. Development of values as an organized system, including the determination of their interrelationship and the establishment of value priorities.

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF A VALUE
Comprehension of the relationship of abstract elements of a value to those already held in to new values that are gaining one's acceptance (e.g. identifies the characteristics of classical music, which he admires and enjoys in relation to rock and roll, which he dislikes).

ORGANIZATION OF A VALUE SYSTEM
Development of a complex of values, including disparate values, in terms of an ordered relationship, which ideally is harmonious and informally consistent (e.g. weighs alternative social policies and practices in terms of the need to promote the public welfare rather than the aggrandizement of special interests). Characterization by a value or value complex. Synthesis and internalization of a value system in a sufficiently harmonious and pervasive way so as to lead the individual to act consistently in accordance with the values, beliefs, or ideas that comprise his total philosophy or world view.

GENERALIZED SET
Orientation enabling the individual to reduce and order the complex environment and to act consistently and effectively in it (e.g. readiness to revise judgement and to change behavior in the light of valid evidence).

CHARACTERIZATION
Internalization of a value system having as its objective the whole of what is know and knowable in a consistent and harmonious relationship (e.g. regulates one's personal and civil life according to a code of behavior based on ethnic principles consistent with democratic ideals.)

SOURCE: Adapted from David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin, S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, Humbold II: Affective Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964), pp. 176-185)

The nuclear family may be taken as an example of a semantic system not accounted for in Bloom's taxonomies. Brown (p. 306) notes that the American English terms of father, mother, son, daughter, uncle, aunt, nephew, and niece offer three distinctive features or semantic components: sex, generation, and lineality. The curriculum writer must be aware of the semantic differences that exist in valued knowledge in describing the function of the family. It is important to note, however, that even of the "same" kinship terms are used in describing the family (e.g. father, mother, son, daughter, uncle, aunt, nephew and niece), these terms may have different denotations or connotations in different societies. For example, males are valued differently in some societies than in others. An uncle may play an important role in one society, whereas in another he may not be considered a part of the immediate family.

The so-called "Generation Gap" is also experienced differently in different societies. Rather than having negative connotations, aging may be connoted in some societies with becoming "knowledgeable." The sociological distinction between patriarchal or matriarchal societies reveals the importance of gender in child-rearing practices and learning behavior. In teaching a social studies unit, the educator who wants to start from the immediate experience of the child should be familiar with the particular cultural variables prescribed by the society to which the child belongs.

In summary, when the curriculum writer wants to apply the system to a context or cultural variable, normative factors must be identified. The social environment (culture) must be adapted to the system. To do this, language is the medium of instruction and, of course, language is integrated into the cultural norms. The system must have common elements that will establish an effective communication with the learner; if this does not take place, the negative attitudes towards schooling may take place. Each culture or sub-culture has its own normative communication system for positive or negative learning encounters. For the curriculum theorist to ignore this important domain, may negate positive experiences for many children across the United

States. We must assume and accept that context or valued knowledge in curriculum design is the pivotal point for academic success/failure in a school situation. Without the awareness of context in curriculum theory, the bilingual educator, or any educator cannot talk about knowledge as it is applied to a specific cognitive style.

The Pedagogical Approach to Bilingual Education

By a pedagogical approach is meant the techniques of classroom management. The pedagogical approach may also be a system but for definition purposes, it is classified separately. The pedagogical approach involves the following questions: (1) teacher-student interaction — or, what happens in the classroom between student and teacher? (2) the process of teaching — or, how do I teach in a bilingual classroom?

It is assumed that every culture deals differently with children and how the teacher manages the classroom. In reverse, we must also assume that each culture prescribes certain roles for students and how the students should "behave" towards the teacher. With respect to a general knowledge system in this domain, called interaction analysis, the field is rich in research.

Flander (1970) has developed models of analysis for teaching behavior as it relates to student learning. More elaborate systems have been developed consisting of: (1) category systems, and (2) sign systems and remodification of Flanders' system since his initial work in the 1950's.

In the field of bilingual education, several studies have been conducted in teacher interaction analysis (See for example, Report No. 5: Mexican-American Study Teachers and Students: Differences in Teacher Interaction with Mexican-American and Anglo Students, 1973; Hughes and Harrison, 1971: Townsend and Zanna, 1975). These studies suggested different outcomes regarding teacher-student interaction. One study showed that Anglo students were better treated and that the teacher favored Anglo students with a greater concentration of desirable behavior (Report No. 5, pp. 17-18). Hughes and Harrison showed that when Spanish was introduced as the medium of instruction in a bilingual classroom a significant increase of student participation developed.

What is important here is not what instruments are valid and reliable for bilingual children nor what are the attitudes an ethnic group has for another; but rather, what are the particular models of teaching which are appropriate for specific learning styles?

Classroom management may be the pedagogical tool to develop a viable learning environment from a teaching point of view. Classroom management can be analyzed as an independent variable without necessarily having any explicit or implicit relationship to the materials used in the classroom. What this suggests is that teaching is not mutually exclusive of materials used in the classroom nor is it dependent on context, but it is an act where the teacher has several options of learning behavior in the process of teaching. The materials do not con-

trol the teaching experience, but rather present a challenge for a flexible teacher. Joyce and Weil discuss models or systems of teaching in which the teacher has several alternatives in the classroom. They never explicitly ground their assumptions on cultural variables. They do, however, state that the models attempt to match learning styles (p. 297). As they state:

> The teaching models are: (1) Group Investigation, (2) The Juris Prudential Model, (3) Social Inquiry, (4) Laboratory Method, (5) Concept Attainment, (6) The Inductive Model, (7) The Inquiry Training Model, (8) The Biological Science Inquiry for the Advance Organizer Model, (9) The Developmental Model, (10) Non-Directive Teaching, (11) Classroom Meeting Model, (12) Synectic, (13) Awareness Training, (14) Operating Conditioning, (15) Model for Matching Environments and People.
>
> For some of the approaches described herein, at least partial answers to these questions can be found in the models themselves. The person-oriented family, especially the non-directive representative, centers entirely on the student and imposes no direction that he does not initiate himself. Behavior modification, although highly structured, requires that instruction be closely matched to the achievement of the students and instructional sequences based on it are usually structured to minimize student error by adjusting pacing to student progress or designing so that the student can pace himself. The interaction-oriented model also relate to the individual student although the process takes place in the matrix of the group interaction process. The Group Investigation Model, in fact, capitalizes on individual differences to generate the energy of the model.
>
> In addition, several of the information-pressing models are designed to adjust to the individual. The models developed from Piaget adjust instruction to the cognitive development of the child, and Kohlberg's adaptation of Piaget provides for an "optimal mismatch." That is, the moral development of the student is assessed and instruction is aimed slightly above his development. Even the Advance Organizer Model, although it is intended to facilitate the teaching of new structures to the student, provides a way of adjusting organizers to relate to the cognitive structure of the student. (p. 298)

The question whether the models are contextually bound as they are interpreted as systems arises again. The basic question is: Can the teaching stand by itself without taking into consideration the cognitive variations of the child? To answer this question one must make three assumptions.

(1) Children basically learn the same way and most, if not all, learning teaching strategies can be applied to the teaching model situation.

(2) Some teaching models may adapt better or "match" the cognitive style of the child, e.g. some models may be field independent and other models may be field sensitive.

(3) Content may be sometimes culturally defined, especially in the social sciences. This may be due to the ideological influence that prescribes the content.[1]

One model that may be analyzed is Taba's model of induction (1966).

[1] One may argue the point that content is value free. In certain instances, this may be true. For example, skill development may be taught as a scientific domain, however, one still must be aware of the problem of not confusing the scientific inquiry with a socio-political "science."

Taba believed that thinking could be taught. (Taba equated thinking as a learning process.) In this thinking process there is an active participation between the student and the data. That is, when having data to interpret, the individual must categorize it by making meaningful generalizations, predictions, and explanations of unknown situations. The next step is that the data must have some logical sequence which Taba calls "lawful sequences." (Taba, 1966; pp. 34-35) The process of induction can take place if these assumptions are met. The teacher's role in this process is one of facilitator. Stated another way, there are three basic steps towards concept formation: (1) identifying and enumerating items of data which are important to the problem, (2) grouping the items according to some basis of similarity, and (3) developing categories and labels for the groups (Joyce and Weil, 1972; pp. 124-125).

This system implies an open learning situation where children can group and identify generalizations. It is assumed that all children can use the process of induction. Yet, this process may label according to culture. For example, let us take the following data and identify it for several alternatives: car, horse and buggy, airplane, motor bike, donkey, oxen, and bicycle.

City children may cognitively apply different generalizations from the rural child with the above data: (a) car, airplane, motor bike — all use gasoline, (b) car, airplane, motor bike, bicycle — all are used for transportation, (c) car, airplane, motor bike, bicycle — all are made of metal, (d) horse and buggy, donkey, oxen — all concepts involve an animal, etc.

A rural child may take the same data and interpret it differently: (a) car, horse and buggy, motor bike, donkey, oxen, bicycle — all are used to go to the fair, (b) horse and buggy, donkey, oxen — all are used for farming, (c) horse and buggy, donkey, oxen — all are living objects, (d) airplane, motor bike — cost a lot of money.

One may note that the cognitive or value orientations are different for the urban and the rural child. This is not to imply that rural children will not make choices and vice versa. What it suggests is that the function of induction can be applied to all children and the process is almost identical. What is different is the value process in the operation of the systems. Hence the teaching act becomes independent of the context. Yet, the context may change the input to the system.

The Ideological Aspect of Curriculum Design in Bilingual Education

Unfortunately, most discussions in the field of bilingual education have been in the ideological domain. While no movement exists without its ideological base, a political movement cannot be interpreted as a void in educational thought.

Language policy has implications for the political and economic interpretation of any nation. The "melting pot" concept believed by many Americans denied group individuality and pride in the American scene. On the other hand, pluralism (the popular term used today especially by the bilingual folk) enhances reactions to the melting pot concept. The

bilingual field distinguishes between ethnic pride and ethnocentrism. Ethnic pride gives one self-worth and positive feelings toward other ethnic groups and considers pluralism and freedom as self evident principles. Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, has some similarity to the melting pot theory in implying that one group is inferior to another.

Attitudes towards language and ethnicity have some interesting political and social implications. For example, when a person who is a native of the United States is a member of an ethnic group which is Hispanic, in many instances he/she is looked upon as poor and inferior — negative connotations that imply institutionalized racism. However, if a middle-class white wants to learn Spanish as a foreign language in high school or college, such study is usually perceived as a positive educational experience.

My own experience in New England is typical of this attitude. As a Portuguese-American, I was told by many of my teachers that English was a "better" language and that Portuguese was inferior and backward. One teacher even went as far as calling the Portuguese-speaking children "pork chops," a term popular in New England for the Portuguese.

When I moved to New York City, a place where very few Portuguese immigrants live, my ethnicity and language became a topic of interest in my social circle. Although the attitude was "I never met one of your kind before," I believe that most people were interested in my background. This encouraged me to explore who I was in a multi-ethnic society. When I returned to Boston, however, I again became a "greenhorn."

Unfortunately, most school programs are based on political considerations rather than recent research that legitimates educational diversity. In view of this, let us explore several concepts in education both in and outside of the bilingual movement with special emphasis on political ideology.

Among these concepts is the key distinction between L_1 (first language/native language) and L_2 (second language/non-native language). Until the bilingual movement became a reality, most non-English-speaking children entered an immersion L_2 program. The basic procedure then was to immediately immerse the children in the English language in all subject areas (social studies, science, arts, etc.). Some programs did have "special" classes in English as a second language. However, educators were not honest enough to say that English was a foreign language. The basic rationale was that America was an English-speaking country and it was a "melting pot." With this prevailing attitute, almost an absolute denial of ethnic identity and ethnic pride, children could not succeed. One was to "forget" the "old country" and was to take on the "new world" with "progressive attitudes. The "educational" assumption was "Now you are in America — You should speak English." The problem with this assumption, especially for children who did not speak English at all, was that it did *not* consider language learning and academic achievement as integral but as separate components. Hence, many children would sit in classes for a year or more and not understand what was going on. Now, there is a growing awareness in

both language-teaching circles and in education in general that non-native speakers who lack facility in English should not be put in double jeopardy by being placed in subject area classes taught in the English language. It is now being accepted by some educators that English as a second language must be taught first before the subject matter is introduced in the English language. (Fishman, 1976; p. 231)

Immersion L_1

On educational grounds and as a reaction to L_2 immersion, some advocates propose that immersion programs in L_1 will have a positive effect on academic achievement (Cohen, 1976; Swain and Barik, 1976). However, the situation is complex. When one has a defined L_1-L_2 paradigm, one cannot control research in many areas. Defining the language the student speaks may present problems. For example, the language of the home may be a different variety of the L_1 than the variety taught in the school. This may create problems in literacy and self-concept. (Christian, 1976; p. 23). There is also the question of differing regional dialects. As Brisk states:

> Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and Mexican-Americans speak different dialects of Spanish. French from Louisiana differs from that spoken in Vermont. Moreover, minority groups have developed their own English dialects — Red English, Chicano English, and so on — structured according to patterns of their ethnic language. (1976, p. 102).

The political issue for L_1 immersion programs can be confusing, especially for laymen and educators alike who are not grounded in linguistic or educational theory. For example, let's say we have five children for placement, all the same age and all from the same linguistic background. A new program has been funded and one must be responsible in developing different tracks in the program.

Student 1: 10 years old — just arrived from Portugal — completed fourth grade does not speak English.

Student 2: 10 years old — one year in the United States — completed third grade in Portugal — still a native Portuguese speaker — one year in an immersion L_2 program.

Student 3: 10 years old — two years in the United States — completed second grade in Portugal — Portuguese native speaker but using language forms considered non-standard by the educated members of the Portuguese-speaking community — two years in an immersion L_2 program.

Student 4: 10 years old — three years in the United States — completed first grade in Portugal — uses language varieties similar to those of student 3 — cannot read and write in Portuguese — three years in an immersion L_2 program.

Student 5: 10 years old — four years in the United States — no formal schooling in Portugal — both Portuguese and English skills are poor. Speaks a Portuguese variety similar to that of students 3 and 4 — con-

sidered "native American" in a "regular" program.[2]

One may note that the five students have different degrees of skills in the Portuguese language. An educator committed to academic achievement and not political ethnicity will be aware that an immersion L_1 program may not meet the linguistic needs of all these students. Many other groups, i.e. Mexican-Americans, Franco-Americans, etc., have similar problems. Although research does suggest that immersion programs are generally successful for both middle-class and working class children (see Barik and Swain, 1975 b; Swain and Barik, 1975; Barik and Swain, 1975 a; Barik and Swain, 1976 b; Cameron, Feider and Gray, 1975; Edwards and Casserly, 1973; and Lambert and Tucker, 1972), further research is still needed. For example, there is the situation of the non-fluent bilingual as defined by Segalowitz and Gatbonton. They define the non-fluent bilingual as a second language user who possesses sufficient skill with a language for successful basic communication, but still is perceived by others and by himself as not possessing native-like control of the language (1977, p. 77). Furthermore, while federal legislation stipulates that bilingual programs are for "limited English-speaking children," this term is too vague to determine language dominance.

Although all of these problems are educational problems, many educators analyze them on political grounds. Many educators see bilingual education as a threat to the national language and argue that bilingual programs deny the child an opportunity to learn English quickly. In the bilingual field, some educators swing the pendulum the other way and generally take the attitude that immersion in L_1 is an absolute necessity to preserve cultural identity in a pluralistic society. Some bilingual educators have even taken the extreme position that without an L_1 immersion program, ethnic genocide will take place. What is important is that, again, political considerations many times outweigh educational considerations. The major trends in the field of curriculum should not be politically based especially in the United States where a variety of dialects exists. There are many Chicanos, Portuguese-Americans, and New Yoricans whose so-called "native" language has been lost. For example, there are many Portuguese-American children whose parents use Portuguese-American speech at home, while the children always respond in English. There are many Chicanos who have lost their Spanish language, but still are culturally Hispanic.

Maintenance Bilingual Education

Although there are various descriptions of maintenance bilingual education, such as a gradual shift from immersion L_1 to 50%-50% academic curriculum in both languages to an immediate entrance to a 50%-50% academic curriculum, many educators use those programs in accordance with political ideology. Unfortunately, controlled research in this area is lacking. Educators, however, have argued that the rejection of

[2] I have purposely put the term "regular" in quotes. Language attitudes also imply political attitudes. Many people in our society, both in and out of education, use the term "regular classroom" to define monolingual classrooms. If one uses strict logic, then bilingual classrooms become "irregular" classrooms which may imply negative attitudes or compensatory education.

maintenance programs is more of a social class issue than an educational issue. There are many private schools across the country with upper class children who enjoy "foreign language education." However, when the same idea is applied to the poor, it becomes controversial. Many educators seem to forget that the English-academic curriculum for many of the students is foreign language education.

Transitional Bilingual Education

The Massachusetts law in transitional bilingual education generally reflects the ideological attitudes of its advocates. A part of the Law states:

> Section 1. *Declaration of policy.* The General Court finds that there are large numbers of children in the Commonwealth who come from environments where the primary language is other than English. Experience has shown that public school classes in which instruction is given only in English are often inadequate for the education of children whose native tongue is another language. The General Court believes that compensatory programs of transitional bilingual education can meet the needs of these children and facilitate their integration into the regular public school curriculum.

The educational rationale of most transitional bilingual education programs is that students with limited English ability should have a gradual transition into the English-dominant classroom. The usual period for this is three years. Terms such as "disadvantaged," "handicapped," and "inadequate command of English" are usually written into the laws pertaining to transitional bilingual education. This premise seems logical and educationally sound until one examines the "hidden" language behind the law.

Leaving educational considerations aside, the major implied political goal is in a gradual immersion into the English language or Anglo culture. This law assumes that eventually the only medium of instruction will be English and that all the subject areas will be taught in the English language. Some programs continue "enrichment" in the native language after the transitional period is over. The political language fails to recognize that children may vary in language abilities and that not all children may have the ability to acquire a foreign language in a specified period of time. Also, the law, or the political ideology, does not address the question of the correlation of language learning and academic achievement.

Another danger to transitional bilingual education lies in possible conflict within the administration of the program. Many bilingual programs are separated from the monolingual curriculum and are usually supervised by the bilingual administration. Many of the administrators believe in either immersion or maintenance and develop programs around an ethnic curriculum. One consequently observes that many children are in a "transitional" program by law and are, in fact, in an immersion or maintenance program by policy. These conflicting political points of view can spell disaster for the children whom both sides are supposed to serve.

To conclude this section, it is clear that more research is needed. Decisions on adoption of immersion L_1 and L_2, maintenance, or transitional bilingual education cannot be based solely on the ideologies of the community and/or school people. The greater question or problem in the ideological domain is, of course, the definition of pluralism and national language policy. Does pluralism imply tolerated differences among groups, or does it imply another form of separatism? Does having a national language imply that social upward mobility requires English unless one is in a specialized field? These questions cannot be answered here; the problem will require several decades to resolve. We do know that the "melting pot" does not exist, and that many students in bilingual education are from working class families. We do suggest that the medium of instruction should be in the native language until the student can *fully* understand a second language. We do suggest that ethnic pride and ethnic heritage are important and real factors in day-to-day life in the United States.

The Existential Component in Bilingual Education Curriculum

The "existential" experience is based in several assumptions: (1) thought is not rational and the human encounter is personal and self-rewarding, (2) the "moral" encounter is always present in the human endeavor, (3) the student and not the teacher defines his/her own limits in the self. As Kneller states:

> Subject matter, codified knowledge, should be treated neither as an end in itself nor as a means of preparing the student for an occupation or career. It should be used rather, as a means toward self-development and self-fulfillment. Instead of subjecting the student to the matter, let the matter be subject to the student. (1971, p. 259)

What is meant by existential encounter? In our case, the multicultural individual as a multiple of things living in one existence, is that he/she simply is. Within this description of human existence, the curriculum theorist should be aware of what many existentialists call "the negation of freedom." That is, when a decision is made, in our case a school decision, an action in which freedom of another human being will be disturbed is contemplated. We are *not* implying that the human condition should always be in a state of flux and consequently, that rational decisions" are not possible, nor are we attempting to emphasize a value judgement on "morality," but rather we are stating that one's prescription is not necessarily the prescription of other human being.

The awareness of this so-called philosophical-anthropological mode of existence is important, so that when decisions are made, they are made with the cultural awareness of the other individual. Thus, one's experience must relate to actions and the way one sees the world.

The belief that all knowledge becomes objectified as "real," that existing social institutions legitimate their own positions through language used as "true and objectified data," is relevant to bilingual education. Legitimation justifies the institutional order by giving a normative dignity to its practical imperatives. It is important then, to under-

stand that legitimation has a cognitive as well as a normative theory (Berger & Luckmann, p. 92). Hence, one of the primary factors in bilingualism as it relates to the existential encounter is the universality of its theoretical construction. That is, although knowledge is pluralistic in nature, the acquisition of knowledge is only a matter of degree in the different day-to-day experiences in the social institutions that exist. Therefore, all cultures derive knowledge by the same constructs, but they only differentiate in social time and space. This differentiation in time and space is an important factor for growth in being-in-the-world.

The poetic form, be it music, art, literature, social graces, intimacy, etc., is the all-encompassing encounter of the human condition. This human encounter cannot be prescribed either by the Anglo or the bilingual curriculum. The existential encounter with oneself cannot be put into a systems-context approach. The encounter must negate prescriptions and not categorize children into various domains which may deny growth and freedom.[3] That is, if one accepts the premise of being-in-the-world as a being of action then one must accept each child as a unique being in this world. As a result, even to speak of "objectives" in a curriculum, be it in a bilingual or monolingual curriculum, which of course categorizes children, seems to be absurd in the existential encounter. Ralph W. Tyler (1949), for example, perfectly explains this contradiction of being-in-the-world and the encounter. He states:

> One of the most important psychological findings for the curriculum maker is the discovery that most learning experiences produce a multiple of outcomes. (p. 26)

and then he remarks that:

> The most useful form for stating objectives is to express them in terms which identify both the kind of behavior to be developed in the student and the content or idea of life in which this behavior is to operate (p. 30).

We ask, if most learning experiences produce multiple outcomes, how is it possible to state objectives in education? In terms of being-in-the-world, the answer is self-evident. The future cannot be decided in the present. This problem is multiplied further in the field of bilingual education. The assumption is that being-in-the-world as it relates to freedom and the art form is not definable unless one can produce the form itself. To produce this poetic form, one must be aware of the variables that are in the culture that will respond to this encounter. Yet, little is known in this field, especially in the area of coordinate bilingualism which produces a new social encounter.[4]

In any curriculum, the encounter is based on people who are unique social beings with different realities that are analogously constructed in various social institutions. If one cannot theorize about bilingual children as it relates to the human condition, is it at all possible to speculate about "existential bilingual curriculum theory"?

[3] An excellent treatise on "ideational theory" and its fallacious reasoning is cited by Dallas M. High, *Language, Persons and Belief*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1967, pp. 36-37.

[4] The compound-coordinate bilingualism distinction was intended to differentiate learning two languages in a common context (compound) and learning two languages in differentiated contexts (coordinate).

Action and Curriculum Theory — Its solution for the bilingual child

One important clue to living in the world is the research by Harvey, Hunt and Schroeder who state that:

> The optimal procedure for inducing individuals to progress towards complexity and flexibility is to match their present stage of personality development to the training environment, tailored to the characteristics of the stage, but in such a way as to pull the individual towards the next stage of development. (Joyce, p. 21)

In this realm, the so-called "match" seems to develop an "action" within the individual's environment. It is not the experience, however, of the "active-passive" learner because when one is "in" an environment and one is knowledgeable of that environment, one is active to it. Hence, how can we "match" the "Hispanic" encounter or the "ethnic" encounter to the environment of a white middle-class curriculum? Is it just an "experience" or is it really a match to one's cultural domain? Again, we must enter the existential mode or philosophical-anthropological domain for a search for a method. As suggested, the awareness of being-in-the-world is essential for the existential encounter in any school program, both for the teacher and for the student. The problem is that a method cannot be equated in the existential realm. An example is now in order. Let us use a hypothetical case of a fifth grade Asian bilingual child "studying" the "Anglo middle-class culture." Before the child takes this "jump" into another culture, does the child have to realize first his/her own existence as a social being in his/her own culture? In other words, can the child "know" that his/her language, religion, feelings, etc., are products of the past and the present hurtling toward a future, and before he/she can understand another culture, must he/she understand these variables first?

What is important for the encounter is to "match" a "visible" environment to the child's space and time. If we are attempting to explain a child's awareness as a social being, the crucial issue for the curriculum theorist who wishes to develop an action curriculum may be in the domain of social perception. That is, as a curriculum theorist, "what do I see, and how do I relate my social perception of living-in-the-world with other human beings?" Am I talking and writing a curriculum *of* society which is really non sensible *in* society?[5]

Yet to be totally in one society, be it bilingual or monolingual, would be to deny the existential encounter. What is needed is an "in-of" factor, and awareness that culture is universal. Also, the crucial position in the encounter is that the "in" factor cannot be realized as something "good" or "better" which implies a value judgement or a prescription that "my society is better than yours". If this happens, as it does in both monolingual and bilingual school settings, we create a strong sense of ethnocentricity which denies the freedom of individuals to live-in and

[5] I have underlined "OF" and "IN" to differentiate a concept, the "idea" from the concrete. One must be careful here not to confuse this "concreteness" or being in the world. The former, "in" factor, may become highly ethnocentric or nationalistic. This, of course, would shift our paradigm from the existential encounter to ideological prescriptions.

talk-about the human condition. On the other hand, the "of" factor, such as in immersion L_2 programs, cannot be tolerated because this creates alienation and a distrust of the "other" people.

The point is that the mode of cognitive variation produces different feelings for different individuals in different cultures. Poetry, music, art, etc., can produce this encounter.

In conclusion, one can systematically appreciate the development of bilingual curriculum by using the suggested systems-context approach which will tend to rule out illogical discrepancies in the thinking, planning, and the implementation process.

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The Statement of Goals and Objectives In Bilingual Education

Arlene Duelfer

Foreword

Bilingual educators constantly decry the paucity of materials for them to utilize with their students. Yet a teacher attending a regional or national conference can become lost in a maze of curricular product displays and can be besieged by company representatives. Why aren't those products useful? What do bilingual teachers really mean by their complaint that there are no bilingual materials? Essentially the problem can be re-stated: existing materials fail to facilitate student's attainment of bilingual teachers' goals and objectives.

Analysis of year-end standardized achievement tests frequently shows that bilingual classes have lower class average in skill areas such as reading and mathematics. Has the bilingual teacher failed? There is one essential question: Do the standardized tests validly assess the bilingual teacher's goals and objectives?

These situations are cited to highlight the important role played by a bilingual teacher's goals and objectives. Articulation of goals and objectives is prerequisite to effective instruction.

Introduction

This chapter will review the role of goals and objectives in effective instruction and review the proces of formulating appropriate goals and objectives for bilingual education. Let us begin by analyzing what we mean by effective instruction. Here is a glimpse at an all-too-familiar classroom situation. The teacher intends for the students to be able to recognize aspects of Spanish culture in painting done by Spanish artists. Does the teacher's lesson and quiz represent effective instruction for this goal?

LESSON

Teacher: (Shows slide, "The Surrender of Breda"). Here is a painting by Diego Rodríguez de Silva y Velásquez. He was a Spanish painter of the 17th century. ("The Maids of Honor"). Here is another of his paintings. What do you notice about these pictures?

Students: There are people. They are in costumes. Swords.

Teacher: What colors do you see?

Students: Brown. Green.

Teacher: ("Majas on a Balcony") Here is a painting by another Spanish artist, Francisco José de Goya y Lucientes. It was painted in the late seventeen hundreds. How is it like the paintings of Velásquez?

QUIZ

1. Name three Spanish painters.
2. Who painted the picture entitled "Toledo in a Storm?"
3. What were some of the subjects of the paintings of Velásquez?

In order to help us assess this lesson's effectiveness, let's look more closely at the instructional components: goal/objective, materials, method, and test items.

FIGURE 1
Spanish Artists Lesson — Instructional Components

GOAL	MATERIALS
The student will be able to recognize aspects of Spanish culture as shown in paintings by Spanish artists.	(Slides) 1. "The Surrender of Breda" 2. "The Maid of Honor" 3. "Majas on a Balcony" 4. "Toledo in a Storm" 5. "Burial of Count Orgaz" (book) Craven, T. *A Treasury of Art Masterpieces*
METHOD	**TEST**
(Lecture/Discussion) 1. Define. (Velasquez, El Greco and Goya were Spanish painters) 2. Recognize. (Characteristics of the paintings) 3. Classify. (Similarities and differences of the painting characteristics	1. Name three Spanish painters. 2. Who painted the picture, "Toledo in a Storm"? 3. What were some of the subjects of the painting of Velasquez?

What is the interrelationship among these components? Are the methods and materials related? Are these two components relevant to the goals? Do the test items match the methods and materials? Do the test items assess the goal?

This example concretely illustrates what bilingual teachers intuitively know: effective instruction occurs when there is a direct relationship among all instructional components. Goals, materials, methods and test items must be directly related. A number of modifications could be made to correct this example. One possibility is the following (Changed instructional components are starred (*):

FIGURE 2

Spanish Artists Lesson — Modified Instructional Components

GOAL (*)	MATERIALS
1. The student will know three Spanish painters. 2. The student will be able to compare and contrast similarities and differences in paintings.	1. "The Surrender of Breda" 2. "The Maids of Honor" 3. "Majas on a Balcony" 4. "Toledo in a Storm" 5. "Burial of Count Orgaz" (book) Craven, T. *A Treasury of Art Masterpieces*
METHOD (Lecture/Discussion)	**TEST (*)**
1. Define. (Velasquez, El Greco and Goya were Spanish painters) 2. Recognize. (Characteristics of the paintings) 3. Classify. (Similarities and differences of the painting characteristics)	1. List the names of three Spanish painters. 2. Look at this painting. Write down 3 characteristics. Here are 4 paintings. Which are similar? List 3 reasons why.

Examining the modifications we find that the goal and test items have been clarified. The original goal has been clearly specified. Ambiguous components of the first goal, "aspects of Spanish culture", have been defined as: 1) "*Know* three Spanish painters; and, 2) "*compare* and *contrast* similarities and differences in paintings". The two test items will now directly measure these specific goals. With these modifications, the lesson components have "internal consistency." Each component is directly related to every other component: the test items measure the stated goals; the method is consistent with the goals and the test items; and, the materials are appropriate examples. Look at the components of the first lesson again. Which components were not directly related to the others? Would the test items assess the goal? The instruction in the modified lesson will clearly be more effective. We can define effective instruction as the existence of internal consistency among all instructional components.

When the bilingual teacher plans his/her instruction s/he consciously or unconsciously has some one or goal in mind. Having defined effective instruction as the existence of clear, direct relationships among the components of instruction, the articulation of each goal is critical. As the teacher defines each objective s/he is, concurrently, limiting and defining the materials that will be needed, the methods s/he will employ and the test items that will be valid for assessment.

The remainder of this chapter will review the procedure for writing instructional goals and objectives and stipulate some of the specific considerations integral to the formulation of goals and objectives in

bilingual education.

Writing Goals and Objectives

Goals are general ends. They are the ultimate behaviors students will ideally attain. Often these ends are pre-determined for the bilingual teacher by the district, school, or program. For instance, "The student will learn to read" is a typical goal, or, "The student will appreciate his/her cultural background." Goal statements of such a broad nature in themselves do not enable the teacher to plan effective instruction as we have defined it. Goals need to be made more specific. This specificity is gained by clarifying the behaviors that the student is expected to exhibit. The goal "The student will appreciate his/her cultural background" might be made more specific such as "The student will volunteer to write a report on an artist of the student's cultural background." Statements of specific student behavior outcomes are called objectives. Some authors specify 2 types of objectives, terminal and instructional objectives.

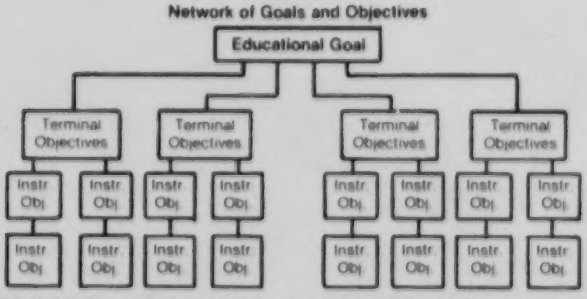
Terminal objectives are statements of behaviors students will show at the end of a series of lessons. A terminal objective might be: Analyze the influence of Franco-American culture on the everyday lives of Northern New Englanders. In the process of attaining this objective students would accomplish smaller component objective such as:

1. Given a list of Northern New England occupations, list those where Francos have been heavily involved.
2. Describe 30 minutes of air time from local Northern New England radio stations in terms of time allotment to spoken French, time allotment to music of Francos, number of commercials of Franco businesses.
3. Having visited a local historical center, list the artifacts collected from Francos.

Accomplished over a shorter time period (i.e. lessons), smaller component objectives such as these are called instructional objectives. Dell (1972 p. 23) diagrams the roles of goals, terminal objectives and instructional objectives (See Fig. 3.)

FIGURE 3

Network of Goals and Objectives



SOURCE: Dell, H.D. *Individualizing Instruction*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1972.

Objectives (Instructional or Terminal) are statements of desired student behaviors. When these statements are formulated to include three specific components, the objectives are said to be "performance objectives." The three key components to include in a performance objective statement are:

1. Situation
2. Behavioral term
3. Acceptable level of performance

The first essential component in the statement of a behavioral objective is the specification of the situation or conditions under which the student will be expected to demonstrate the behavior. Words such as "given", "having", and "after" are often used to help define the condition. Some examples of situations or conditions are:

> Given a list of 10 Spanish words and 10 English words in two columns . . .
>
> After viewing a filmstrip depicting five typical activities of Franco-Americans and without any additional materials . . .
>
> While listening to a tape of Mexican folksongs and having a list of five American song writers . . .

For any performance objective the second component, or behavioral term is a key portion of the statement. The term must define an action which can be observed and measured. Examples of behavioral and non-behavioral terms are:

Behavioral	*Non-behavioral*
Select	Know
Identify	Understand
State	Feel
Write	Appreciate
Group	Learn
Name	Think
Describe	
Construct	
Order	

While bilingual teachers often want students to *know, understand* and *appreciate,* these terms actually depict feelings, attitudes or behavior that are internal or "inside the head". The teacher needs words that depict observable behaviors in order to be able to determine when the goals are attained. For purposes of performance objectives verbs such as these must be re-defined in terms of observable behaviors. How can this objective be re-stated?

Given paper and pencil the student will understand the Passamoquoddy culture.

One possibility would be:

> Given paper and pencil, the student will list three examples of Passamoquoddy culture (food, clothing, shelter, dance, music).

Think of three action verbs for the term *appreciates.* Chooses, proposes, shares, practices, listens, copies might have been among the words you thought of.

A statement of the acceptable level of performance is the third component of a performance objective. This portion of the statement tells explicitly what the criteria are that constitute "attainment": six out of ten items, 80% of the class, correctly. Look at the two performance objectives below. In which case is the acceptance level most clearly given?

A. After completing a unit on Franco-American and Spanish folktales, the student, given a pencil and paper, will compare similarities and differences. Acceptable performance is listing, in a phrase, five similarities and five differences.

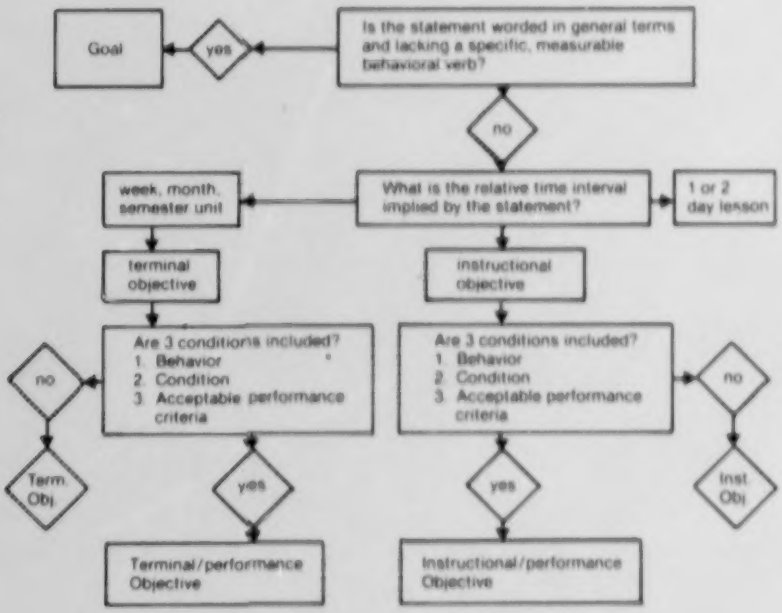
B. After completing a unit on Franco-American and Spanish folktales, the student, given a pencil and paper, will compare similarities and differences. Acceptable performance consists of comparing and contrasting three folktales of each.

Objective "A" provides a clear statement of acceptance level. While objective "B" states required number of folktales (3), the terms "compare" and "contrast" are still not clarified.

In general, follow the steps in Fig. 4 to correctly identify or write statements which are: goals, terminal objective, instructional objective, terminal/performance objective, or instructional/performance objective.

FIGURE 4

Steps In Identifying or Writing Goals and Objectives



Check your understanding of goals and the different types of objectives from Figure 4 by classifying the following statements as: (a) Goal; (b) Terminal Objective; (c) Instructional Objective; (d) Terminal/performance objective; (e) Instructional/performance objective. Write the letter of your answer on the line provided. The answers are included on the last page of this chapter.

Statements To Be Classified

1. The student will learn to use the metric system. _____
2. The student will write equations for solving word problems. _____
3. Having studied local history and visited the historical society, the students will appreciate the influence of Italian culture. _____
4. The student will correctly list examples of solid states of matter under the classification "solid". _____
5. The student will correctly list examples of the three states of matter under the appropriate classifications; solid, liquid or gas. _____
6. Given artifacts from Passamoquoddy and Franco culture, the student will identify each artifact as Passamoquoddy or Franco with 100% accuracy. _____
7. Given pencil and paper and 3 artifacts typical of the Franco culture, the student will write down at least 3 of 5 characteristics the artifacts have in common. _____

Review a statement you have made as the goal or objective of a unit or lesson. What classification of objectives would it come under? How would you write the statement to make it a performance objective?

Considerations for the Bilingual Educator

The purpose of this discussion is to enable the bilingual teacher to be a competent writer of goals and objectives. The mechanical skills necessary to formulate appropriate statements have been reviewed. True competence, however, entails the ability to formulate appropriate statements about meaningful content.

Teachers intuitively respond to the needs of their students and teach them more than skills and facts. Several writers (e.g., Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1956) have provided language for describing these teacher activities. These authors have stipulated learner "domain" and behavior taxonomies. A domain is generally seen as an area or component of the "whole" child. Educators define three domains: cognitive, affective and psychomotor. The cognitive domain refers to the student as a learner of information or subject matter. The student is also an individual with feelings; likes and dislikes. These aspects of the student comprise the affective domain. Finally, students are capable of physical, motor behaviors such as writing, running, or using tools. The psychomotor domain consists of activities such as these.

The goals and objectives that teachers write fall into one of these

three domains. In the process of developing goals and objectives, a teacher's awareness of the three domains can help him/her maintain a balance among the three areas characteristic of the competent goal and objective writer.

Within the domains teachers can require student behaviors that reflect different kinds of activity. For example consider the cognitive activities demanded by the two objectives below:

1. The student will list three causes of the Civil War.
2. The student will analyze the relative impact of 5 possible causes of the Civil War by ranking the 5 causes highest to lowest in terms of impact, and writing a short explanation for each of his/her rankings.

The second objective is typically viewed as being a "harder" cognitive activity. Besides including objectives from each of the three domains, the competent objective and goal writer includes objectives that require different levels of activity. To aid in this endeavor the authors, Bloom, 1956 and Krathwohl, 1956, have postulated hierarchies or "taxonomies" of types of cognitive and affective activities. Table 1 below is an outline of Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain while Table 2 following exhibits Krathwohl, taxonomy of the affective domain.

TABLE 1

An Outline of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objective Domain

LEVEL	EXAMPLES
1.00 Knowledge	
1.11 Knowledge of terminology	Simple definition required
1.12 Knowledge of specific facts	Dates, events, persons, places
1.21 Knowledge of conventions	Rules of etiquette, grammar
1.22 Knowledge of trends and sequences	Processes, directions regarding time
1.23 Knowledge of classifications and categories	Classes, sets, divisions, arrangements useful to a given field
1.24 Knowledge of criteria	Criteria to evaluate facts, principles, etc.
1.25 Knowledge of methodology	Techniques and procedures
1.31 Knowledge of principles and generalizations	Abstractions which summarize observations of phenomena
1.32 Knowledge of theories and structures	Body of principles and generalizations
2.00 Comprehension	
2.10 Translation of one level of abstraction to another; translation from one form to another form	Restating a problem reducing size of communication, giving an example
2.20 Interpretation	Reordering and rearranging, qualifying
2.30 Extrapolation	Extension of data to past or future
3.00 Application	Applying data to new problems
4.00 Analysis	
4.10 Analysis of elements	Finding assumptions, distinguishing facts and opinion

4.20 Analysis of relationships	Relevant data, causal, finding fallacies
4.30 Analysis of organization	Form and style, inferring author's purpose
5.00 Synthesis	
5.10 Production of a unique communication	Skill in writing, telling stories, composing
5.20 Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations	Proposing hypotheses, planning units, tool designing
Derivation of a set of abstract relations	Formulation of a theory
6.00 Evaluation	
6.10 Judgments in terms of internal evidence	Evaluation by logical accuracy, consistency, and other internal criteria
6.20 Judgments in terms of external criteria	Evaluating theories, judging by standards, weighing values

SOURCE: Benjamin S. Bloom, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain, pp. 201-207. 1956 by David McKay Company, Inc. Used with permission.

TABLE 2

An Outline of Krathwohl's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Affective Domain

LEVEL	EXAMPLES
1.0 Receiving (Attending)	
1.1 Awareness	Perceives, is aware of, takes into account
1.2 Willingness to receive	Tolerates, does not avoid
1.3 Controlled or selected attention	Differentiates, attends to certain portions and disregards others
2.0 Responding	
2.1 Acquiescence in responding	Obeys, is compliant, does what he is told
2.2 Willingness to respond	Responds voluntarily without force and on his own
2.3 Satisfaction in response	Enjoys what he is doing, gains satisfaction
3.0 Valuing	
3.1 Acceptance of a value	Highly tentative commitment to a belief, questions beliefs, identifies with a belief
3.2 Preference for a value	Actively pursues his beliefs, willing to devote time and effort in pursuing values, volunteers
3.3 Commitment	Strongly certain that his beliefs are correct, loyal to beliefs, willing to work hard for his goals
4.0 Organization	
4.1 Conceptualization of a value	Clarifies the meaning of this beliefs, shows their interrelationships, makes generalizations
4.2 Organization of a value system	Orders and organizes to make them internally consistent and compatible
5.0 Characterization by a Value or Value Complex	

5.1 Generalized set	Responds in accordance with a generalized value system
5.2 Characterization	Consistently responds in accordance with a philosophy of life

SOURCE: David R. Krathwohl et al., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook II: Affective Domain, pp. 176-185. 1964 by David McKay Company, Inc. Used with permission.

When writing objectives for a unit of study, bilingual teachers try to tap several different levels. Sometimes a grid such as in Figure 5 is used to help structure the planning process.

Figure 5

Sample Planning Grid for Cognitive Objectives

GOAL Students will understand the role of figurative language imagery in poetry **COGNITIVE INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES**	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation	
1. The student will be able to write a short definition and cite an appropriate example for each of the following: 1. Image 2. Simple 3. Metaphor 4. Personification							
2. Given a new poem in English by an American poet, the student will match words in the poem with the appropriate term: simile, metaphor, image, personification.							
3. Having read an American poem, the student will restate the poem in his/her own words.							
4. Having read a poem by a Spanish Latin American poet, the student will re-state the poem in his/her own words.							
5. Having read 2 poems, one in English and one in Spanish, the student will analyze the role of culture by the words that are similar in both poems, but suggest different images.							
6. The student will write a simile or metaphor to communicate a given feeling to a Latin American audience in Spanish.							
7. The student will write a simile or metaphor to communicate a given feeling to an American audience in English.							
8. Given the students' work, the class will analyze the role of culture by listing the similarities and differences in American and Latin American use of words.							

Much of the discussion throughout all the chapters in this module focuses on the unique characteristics of the bilingual/bicultural child. Teachers of bilingual/bicultural students find it necessary to consider more than these traditional domains to completely reach and educate these children. In a sense the bilingual teacher expands upon the work of Bloom and Krathwhol and includes what may be thought of as two additional domains: the "culture domain"; and, the "language domain." Likewise, within these domains, the bilingual teacher considers levels for the child's development. Let's consider two additional "taxonomies" for the education of the bilingual child. (Tables 3 and 4)

TABLE 3
An Outline of A Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Cultural Domain

LEVEL	EXAMPLES
1.00 Family awareness	Family members — "Soy Juan . . . . . "
2.00 Awareness of ethnic grouping	Identification of groups — "Soy Puerto rriqueño"
3.00 Barrio/Community awareness	Identification of neighborhood — "Soy de Jamaica Plain"
4.00 School/Community awareness	Identification of school "Somos de la escuela Mary Curley"
5.00 Intercultural awareness	Awareness of various groupings
6.00 Degree of acculturation/ assimilation	Identify and label process
7.00 What is significant to what degree	Values orientation
8.00 What is felt by group one belongs to	Value perception
9.00 What is problematic	Value conflicts
10.00	Other not included in taxonomy

TABLE 4
An Outline of Educational Objectives — Language Domain

LEVEL	EXAMPLES
1.0 Awareness of language of home and ethnic community	Common expressions, greetings, songs and games (in language(s) other than English)
2.0 Awareness of language of larger community	Common expressions, greetings, songs and games (English)

3.0 Awareness of regional differences in one language	En Puerto Rico se dice chiringa o cometa (kite), en Mexico papalote, en Venezuela papagayo. Here we say pail, but in the South it's bucket.
4.0 Awareness that language has rules	
4.01 For appropriate use in social context	Informal and formal ("Gimme" vs. "May I please have"; "Dame" vs. "Me podria dar . . ."
4.02 Of grammar	Plural in English: The apples *are* red. Plural in Spanish: Las manzanas son rojas
5.0 Competency in a written standard form of language(s) spoken	On dit "tsi" mais on écrit *petit*. A veces decimos "patràs" pero escribimos *para atràs*. We can say "Cumeer" but we write *come here*.

A complete grid to help the bilingual teacher attend to the many complexities of the bilingual/bicultural child when developing his/her goals and objectives would look like Figure 6.

FIGURE 6
Grid for Developing Goals and Objectives for the Bilingual/Bicultural Child

GOAL	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	
	1. Knowledge	COGNITIVE DOMAIN
	2. Comprehension	
	3. Application	
	4. Analysis	
	5. Synthesis	
	6. Evaluation	
	1. Receiving	AFFECTIVE DOMAIN
	2. Responding	
	3. Valuing	
	4. Organization	
	5. Characterization	
	1. Family	CULTURAL DOMAIN
	2. Barrio/Neighborhood	
	3. Community	
	4. Ethnic	
	5. Bicultural	
	1. Family & Ethnic Group	LANGUAGE DOMAIN
	2. Community	
	3. Regional Differences	
	4. Language Rules	
	5. Written Standard	

While it would be impossible to incorporate all levels of these domains into the objectives of every unit, the competent objective writer is aware of these components and includes them as often as possible. Bilingual teachers often creatively adapt materials from seemingly non-flexible content areas such as mathematics or science, to incorporate the cultural and language domains.

Competency in developing appropriate and meaningful goals and objectives for the bilingual/bicultural student is an important skill. Reconsider the goals and objectives you have written for a unit. Do they include observable behaviors? What domains do they represent? Can you add goals and objectives that represent the language and cultural domains? While there are additional considerations that must influence teachers adamantly cite the additional rewards in teaching true bilingual education.

Answers to Quiz on Statements of Goals and Objectives (p. 51): ABACBDE

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Teacher Strategies: The Role of Audio-Visual Methodology in Bilingual Education

Gregoire Chabot

Foreword

The progressive individualization of instruction is a phenomenon which has been applauded by bilingual educators. And with good reason, for the bilingual educator is often painfully aware, either through observation or personal experience, of the toll exacted by an educational system that cannot or will not accept (much less adapt to) the different learning styles, the varying cultural and linguistic modes of the student.

It is only logical, then, that those of us in bilingual education welcome the development of an approach such as the Systems-Context approach described by Antonio Simoes in Chapter 2. For this particular structuring of the educational system, as far as materials development is concerned, seems to consider most of the important variables which affect the learning process. In addition, it provides concrete guidelines for the classroom teacher who wishes to actively participate in the adaptation or development of materials in order to insure a closer correspondence between the system, the content, the context and the teaching strategy. It must ne noted, however, that these new strategies do not necessarily change the cognitive goals of the educational system. The strategies merely attempt to provide more viable and flexible means to attain the goals.

It is precisely within this spirit, i.e. the search for a more viable means to reach a long-established goal, that this chapter approaches the subject of media use in bilingual education. It will also use, as have a number of other chapters, the existence of different, culturally-bound learning styles as its basis. In this context, the term "media" will be used to refer not simply to the use of electronic devices, but rather to any product which is communicated primarily through oral/visual as opposed to written means. Finally, specific examples will be drawn from the Franco-American ethnic experience. It is my contention, however, that this will in no way detract from the applicability of this chapter's content to other bilingual/bicultural contexts.

Oral Vs. Written Tradition

The Systems-Context approach outlined by Antonio Simoes is excellent in making us aware of the number of variables that must be considered both in the development or adaptation of materials and in the presentation of these materials to the bilingual student. One of the major variables centers around the learning style of the child as determined by his cultural milieu. And within this group of variables, perhaps the most important to consider is the means by which the culture primarily transmits knowledge to the child. At its most basic level, two choices present themselves. Knowledge can be either transmitted primarily in the con-

13

text of an oral/visual tradition or in the context of a written tradition. I purposely shy away from the statement that knowledge is transmitted using an oral/visual approach as opposed to written approach simply because it is absurd to imagine a child of one or two receiving knowledge directly from a written approach. All children learn first through oral and visual stimuli and only later begin to accept the written as a means of acquiring information. To pretend otherwise would be folly. The important culturally-bound variable here, therefore, is not how the child acquires information per se. For young children, the process seems to be entirely oral/visual. What is important is that learning occurs in either the oral/visual or the written context. Let me attempt to explain this statement. Different cultural contexts will place emphasis either on the oral/visual or written means of acquiring knowledge. A child in an oral/visual context will therefore not only receive most of his information through oral/visual means, but in addition, these means will be constantly reinforced as the predominant learning-communicating medium. Writing skills may be passively glorified, but are regarded more as a luxury rather than a necessity. The child surrounded by a written context will perhaps receive as much information through oral/visual means but at the same time, will be urged to reach the writing-reading stage as soon as possible. Indeed, it is the written word that will be both actively and passively glorified within the cultural context, and it is the acquisition of reading and writing skills that will be seen as one of the culminating stages of the child's development; the oral/visual at that point being relegated to an important, but nonetheless secondary role. It is then, the attitude of the cultural context which surrounds him towards the means of acquiring knowledge that determines the learning style of the child.

Depending on this attitude, the child will be apt to develop either strong oral/visual skills or strong writing/reading skills. It must be said here, however, that it would be extremely difficult to find a cultural group in the United States that receives all its knowledge exclusively from one tradition to the total exclusion of the other. The policy of compulsory education through age 16 and perhaps more importantly the exigencies of everyday life in an industrial society require some form of knowledge acquisition through writing and reading skills. One the other hand, the proliferation of the radio, television and cinematic media has insured that considerable information will be received through oral/visual means. Most cultures are aware of, receive information from and communicate using both traditions. In discussing the learning style of the ethnic child in the United States, then, we cannot deal in absolutes, but rather in degrees. To determine the learning style of the child, it is not necessary to prove the existence of one tradition to the exclusion of the other but rather to show a higher proportion of presence of one as opposed to the other.

With this in mind, let us then try to determine the basic learning style of the bilingual child. To do this we must consider the cultural context that surrounds him. And the most important social structure within this

context for the child is the family. A look at the activities that go on at a "typical" Franco-American family gathering might then provide some insight into the attitudes transmitted to the child.

First, the definition of "family" that most Franco-Americans would give would be that of the extended family which includes aunts, uncles, cousins (1st, 2nd, and sometimes 3rd) and grandparents as opposed to the nuclear family consisting solely of parents and siblings. Therefore, keeping in mind the ethnic propensity for larger than usual families, the typical family gathering might include anywhere from 30-50 people. The initial activity at any gathering is the greeting where the newly arrived must move individually from one relative to the next and submit to a number of pro forma questions and comments.

Indeed, seating at the gatherings is always arranged in a rectangular fashion around the periphery of the room to best accommodate this re-initiation into the group. It is only after this initial activity is completed (an often time-consuming task) that the family member can get down to the principal premeal activity i.e., conversation. The meal, often the central event, becomes an extension of the conversation that preceded it but on a closer, more centralized, yet more generalized level since it must be of interest to all those around the table. The meal is usually lengthy, the amount of time involved depending on the interest level generated by the conversations. Invariably, however, a small group can still be found exploiting a particular intriguing topic hours after the main part of the family has moved on to other rooms. The latter has usually begun the post-supper activities. The story tellers have been singled out and "coaxed" into repeating the favorite tales. Those with musical talent have all been tapped to provide an informal recital. In some families, everyone is assigned a song. Traditionally, it is referred to as "Marcel's song" or "Lucienne's song." In reality, however, the song's owner merely leads the others through a melody and words that everyone knows from memory.

The typical Franco-American gathering is therefore entirely oral/visual in its orientation. Its main activities glorify the oral/visual means of communication. In addition, most of the activities are participatory ones (e.g. songs, conversations) where everyone from the oldest to the youngest is allowed, even encouraged, to make a contribution either individually or within the group. The importance of this trait will be addressed later. What is important to underline now is the essential nature of oral/visual expression in one of the most important aspects of the Franco-American cultural context, i.e., the family; and while I am willing to grant that some non-Franco-American gatherings may parallel the situation described above, the frequency of these gatherings in the Franco-American community practically eliminates the possibility of total reproduction by non-Franco-Americans. For these gatherings occur not simply once a year, nor simply on major holidays, but weekly and often, on a more reduced level, with fifteen to twenty-five as opposed to fifty participants, daily. The oral/visual tradition on which these social events are dependent, is then frequently and effectively

reinforced.

But the importance of oral/visual communication is not limited to organized gatherings. Because of the limited geographic mobility of most Franco-American groups, few members of the extended family lived outside a five mile radius from the original "homestead." General communication within the family could then easily be accomplished orally either in person or by telephone without having to resort to written means. And since most Franco-American families' social dealings were conducted almost exclusively within the family context, the oral/visual tradition was tacitly established as the basis for all social exchange.

The same held true for exchanges in a work context. Trades were transmitted orally and visually from father to son, master to apprentice. Jobs in the mill were acquired through work experience. Planting and harvesting cycles were orally and visually explained by the farmer to his children. Indeed the communication of practically all information on all levels was accomplished through oral/visual means. Bedtime stories were told from memory, not read. Recipes were handed down by word of mouth. Family history was meticulously recorded orally through stories repeated from one generation to the next. Good entertainment was that which contained possibilities for conversation or participation by the audience (like card-playing) or which encouraged or rekindled topics sometimes overused through daily contact. Even the religion of the Franco-American was geared to function on a totally oral/visual level, the Roman Catholic mass being perhaps the best example of this phenomenon, demonstrating not only communication through a visual, i.e. ritualistic, and verbal form but also providing one of the few examples of exposure to a literary, albeit orally transmitted, form: the sermon.

The role of the written tradition in this cultural ethnic context is a minor one. Communication within the family and neighborhood is entirely on an oral/visual level. Communication outside the family or neighborhood is limited to say the least. On the few occasions when contact with the outside requires written communication, the task is entrusted to one member of the family, usually the oldest, the most educated or the priest. Within the home, books are not in evidence. In fact bookcases, especially the built-in variety, are usually filled with photographs, demi-tasses and other knick-knacks rather than books. An exception to this is the omnipresent set of encyclopedia purchased for the children, which often occupies the bottom shelf. And while newspapers and magazines may be in evidence, their quality is significant. The newspaper is exclusively the "hometown" one microcosmic in focus, which serves to provide new topics of conversation, never one with a more macrocosmic view. The magazines are usually manifestations of the oral/visual tradition in print i.e. Photoplay, Screen, House Beautiful, Field and Stream, never Time or Newsweek. Once again, to establish a proper perspective, let me repeat that we are dealing here in combinations and degrees, not in absolutes. Some of the traits mentioned above are socio-economic in origin and are therefore shared by

ethnics and non-ethnics. However, the combination of all of these traits and the degree to which the oral/visual tradition is dominant, the frequency with which it is reinforced as the primary means of communication, seems to be exclusively ethnic. Surrounded by such a context, the ethnic child must be considered as having a learning style dependent on the oral/visual tradition.

Stereotype Vs. Reality

The picture of the ethnic context painted in the previous section could be labelled as stereotypic. The knick-knacks in the bookcases, the inability or unwillingness to deal with written communication would be used to reinforce the idea of the "dumb" (supply appropriate derogatory name). The story which my mother relates about her brother at 20 painfully and carefully reading the letters "t. . .h. . .e," then concentrating and stating proudly that this combination of letters in its present form spelled the word "run" could be the object of similar criticism. That many educated Franco-Americans today still do not answer written correspondence but eagerly provide the same information over the phone would be interpreted as a sign of laziness or impoliteness, thus reinforcing a stereotypic view of "latins" or ethnics.

But the line between stereotype and reality is a very thin one. Indeed it is only because a trait is generally found among members of a similar group that it is allowed to become a stereotype. A stereotype is founded therefore in reality. It is only when this reality is subjectively interpreted by others and a value judgment attached to it that stereotyping begins. The stereotype then often takes on a value and force of its own which frequently loses all touch with the changing reality of the group which it is supposed to characterize. Irish men, in a hold-over from the 19th century, are still portrayed as heavy drinkers. Older Franco-Americans still consider a definition of a Franco-American incomplete, even absurd, without the inclusion of the words "a fervent son of the Church." Neither of these images approximate the reality of the present-day member of either of these groups.

The "stereotypes" which evolved from the predominance of the oral/visual tradition among ethnics have known a similar history. The reality became stereotype only when a negative subjective interpretation was attached to it by the non-ethnic American context, a context which viewed oral/visual communication as markedly inferior to the written.

For to the extent that we can describe ethnic communication as being predominately oral/visual in nature, we can characterize communication in the "Anglo" context as being predominately written. The "Anglo" educational system is a case in point. From phonics in kindergarten through Freshman Composition to the doctoral dissertation, the superiority of the written word as a means of acquiring and transmitting knowledge is constantly underlined. The course of study from elementary through graduate school is geared to the progressive development

of strong reading and writing skills. It is only natural, then, that all evaluation is accomplished by the use of written testing instruments. Reading is tested in terms of speed and comprehension through written tests. Spelling, math, social studies, performance in all areas is judged by written means. The dependence on the written context is so pervasive that, during an orientation session for instructors of a college-level Conversational French Course, I was told by the section leader that I should give an average of one written quiz a week and that at least one-half of each exam should be written. Furthermore, this system of evaluation seemed to him in no way incongruous with the goals of the course.

Given this predominance of the written tradition in the "Anglo" society, it is easy to see how their perception of the oral/visual ethnic tradition would be negative and how such a perception would lead to stereotyping. Labelling the examples given at the beginning of this section stereotypes would then require accepting the inferiority of the oral/visual tradition and the resultant superiority of the written one as defined in the "Anglo" society. This would be a mistake.

In reality, both the oral/visual and the written tradition have strong positive and negative aspects as means of learning and communicating. We have already touched upon some of the limitations of the oral/visual and it is essential to point out that this tradition is identified with a pre-industrial or rural culture. It is a useful tool to express the microcosm, the present in terms of the past. It is much less so as a tool to express the macrocosm, the present in terms of the future. The oral tradition is also more corruptible than the written word in transmitting precise information. The written tradition, the communication tool of the industrial-urban society, also has some major weaknesses. It is one-dimensional, and can, on occasion, form an impersonal barrier which inhibits communication between writer and reader. When that communication does occur, it is with considerable delay. A written message is one that has lost its immediacy and spontaneity in the translation from the writer's mind through the written page to the reader's mind. Just as oral/visual communication is ill at ease in dealing with the macrocosm, written communication is too involved a process to deal effectively with the microcosm. In a book which very accurately describes Québécois society, sociologist Marcel Rioux devotes an entire chapter to the oral tradition which he believes pervades life in the province. It is perhaps he who best states the positive aspect of the oral/visual tradition.

> *Ce sont les moyens de communication électroniques qui rendent aujourd'hui possible ce retour à la tradition orale. L'intermédaire, le relais, que représente l'écrit est supprimé. Les actions et réactions deviennent plus vives et plus spontanées. Si l'on compare l'oral et l'écrit, on se rend compte que dans l'oral, en plus du message transmis, les gestes, la voi, les regards entrent en ligue de compte; on se livre soi-meme autant que l'on emet un message. C'est un acte plus total et plus global. Il faut tout de suite réagir, communiquer et s'engager dans le processus d'échange. Il faut participer, s'impliquer et donner d'avantage cours à sa spontanéité. On ne peut plus se réfugier derrière un relais l'écriture — qui desamorce la passion pour ne laisser subsister que le message rationalisé. (Rioux, p. 54).*

> (It is the electronic means of communication which today make possible a return to the oral tradition. The intermediary, the relay system represented by writing is suppressed. Actions and reactions become more pronounced and spontaneous. If we compare oral and written traditions, we realize that in the oral, over and above the message being transmitted, gestures, voice, facial expressions play an important role, the speaker delivers as much of himself as he does the message. It is a more total, a more global act. It demands instant reaction, communication and involvement in the process of exchange. It requires participation, commitment, and a willingness to give vent to one's spontaneity. The participants can no longer take refuge behind a relay system — the written word which disembodies passion and leaves only a rationalized message)

Indeed, whereas written communication is one-dimensional, requiring the interpreter to depend only on the written word to decipher the message, oral expression is always multidimensional. A telephone conversation is two dimensional since inflection, tone of voice assist the listener in interpreting the spoken message. A message transmitted by television or film allows for a third dimension since the viewer/listener can also use the speaker's physical reactions as an interpretation. And finally, an inperson situation adds a fourth dimension since it allows for direct interaction between the giver and the receiver of the information.

But the benefits of oral/visual communication do not apply solely to the recipient of the message. By evaluating his audience's vocal, physical reactions, the message-giver can adapt his message thus enhancing the chance that it will be understood.

In the context of the above then, depicting the ethnic as a person dependent on the oral/visual tradition for everyday communication and conversely as being uncomfortable in dealing with the written tradition cannot be termed stereotypic. The oral/visual tradition, and the written tradition are both equally valid means of communication. No longer should energy be spent attempting to develop their relative strengths in the individual. However, while it is possible for the individual who is the product of a strong cultural written tradition to fully develop his strengths, the American educational system allows little room for the person with a strong cultural oral/visual tradition to reach the same level of proficiency.

We can readily appreciate the major difficulties faced by a child whose home language is not English in a non-bilingual classroom. What little opportunity the child might have to show and develop his oral proficiency is lost since this proficiency is in a language unacceptable in the school situation. Usually the acquired oral ability will never be tested, discovered, utilized or developed. The outcome is a resultant lack of confidence, a self-depreciation and a lack of positive self-image in the child which eventually leads to a sullen frustrated silence.

However, even a bilingual program can ignore both the cultural context and learning needs of the child. Too often, those programs are merely translations into another language of the English curriculum and teaching strategy. Too often bilingual educators have simply adopted

the "Anglo" philosophy of education, i.e. the dependence and insistence on the predominance of the written tradition, without questioning its validity. Such an approach can have at best a limited success in dealing with the learning needs and academic performance of the bilingual/bicultural child.

Before we continue, may I emphasize once again that I am not advocating that we abandon all training in writing and reading skills for bilingual/bicultural students. Nor should the reader assume from the paragraphs above that I consider the oral/visual means of communication as superior to the written. Both have their relative strengths and weaknesses as means of expression. It is, therefore, not a question of excluding one or the other, but rather insisting that the strengths of both are taught and developed. At this point, in the American educational structure, this requires placing more emphasis than has been done in the past, on the oral/visual tradition.

Active vs. Passive

The decision to utilize and develop the bilingual/bicultural child's aptitude for oral/visual expression is, however, only a first step in the actual realization of a curriculum that places equal emphasis on this learning style as well as the written. Introducing a haphazard succession of slide shows, films, or videotapes into the curriculum merely as supplementary materials will not produce any measurable increase in oral/visual skills nor will such a program validate the oral/visual learning style. Too often, as is the case with many audio-visual programs, the media expression is at best a poor translation of a predominately written message or tradition into an oral/visual form. At worst it becomes a superfluous tag-on to a written text, thus having no validity of its own. I remember being told by a materials developer that the audio/visual portion of a particular materials package could probably best be used on a Friday afternoon or the day before vacation when nothing else would keep the students quiet. This attitude is unfortunately widespread and perpetuates the fallacy of the inferiority of the oral/visual tradition both as a means of learning, and as a means of communication. It is therefore possible for a school system to own all sorts of audio-visual equipment, to include many different types of audio/visual programs within the classroom and still not be receptive to the learning style of the bilingual child, for it is the quality of the involvement, not necessarily the quantity that is essential here. And for the bilingual/bicultural child, any audio/visual program must be active-participatory in scope in order to be most effective.

Let me explain. In discussing the cultural context of the ethnic child, we have already determined that the oral/visual tradition which surrounds him is largely participatory. It is conversation, story-telling singing, role playing that achievement is measured. Excellence in any of these fields is rapidly rewarded, thus reinforcing the validity of the activity in the participant. With this in mind, then, the degree of the success of

any audio-visual school program for bilingual/bicultural children will be in proportion to the amount of active participation it requires of the student. The greater the participation, the greater the fit with the learning style of the child.

Microcosm vs. Macrocosm

The participatory oral tradition of the bilingual/bicultural child is an effective tool in describing the microcosm. It is much less comfortable or useful in dealing with the macrocosm. Herein lies one of its weaknesses. In order to parallel the learning style and experience of the bilingual child, in order to match his/her entry-level behavior, and in order to make an active participatory audio/visual program economically and logistically possible, the microcosm should be at the center of an entry-level program. In other words, the local setting should be the principal context in terms of social studies, music, art, language. Emphasis on this aspect might seen superfluous for the normal curriculum usually is geared to proceed gradually from the microcosm to the macrocosm, from the particular to the general. (This is not always the case, however, in a social studies unit, my daughter's 2nd grade class studied an apple-growing community in Yakima, Washington, in spite of the fact that the area around our town in Massachusetts is perhaps one of the largest apple-growing areas in the country and the reputed home of "Johnny Appleseed.")

Unfortunately, because of a persistent sense of inferiority among bilinguals, instruction in another language too often is centered around a foreign, so-called "mother" country. Young Franco-Americans are asked to relate to the culture and language of France, Hispanics to Spain, Luso-Americans to Portugal, etc. This approach effectively ignores the existence of a North American non-English reality and can be as devastating to the bilingual child's achievement and self-image as is the benign neglect of a non-bilingual school situation.

Once again, this should not be interpreted as an argument for parochialism. As the child becomes older, and as the local context has been studied and validated, progressively enlarging the focus of studies to include more and more of the macrocosm becomes a logical, even desirable, step. In this regard, the curriculum developed by the St. John Valley Title VII Project in Maine seems ideal. Grades K-2 studies are based on the local Francophone culture i.e. History of the Acadians, the forest, the village, the family. Third graders use a text which deals with their home town, then progress to books dealing with the three other towns involved in the Project. Fourth graders enlarge their horizons to include other Francophone areas of North America, i.e. the rest of New England, Louisiana and Canada. Finally, in the last three grades of the elementary level, students are exposed to a variety of Francophone cultures from Europe, Africa, and Asia, all the while never losing sight of their own cultural and ethnic reality. It is also within the context of a curriculum such as this that an effective program of media can best be developed for the bilingual/bicultural child.

Nuts vs. Bolts

With all of the previous information in mind, we are now ready to embark on a study of practical examples of media use in bilingual education. Let me point out once again that the success of any program of media for bilingual/bicultural children requires a high degree of built-in participatory activities use as a basis the microcosm to expand gradually to include more and more of the macrocosm. Using these guidelines we can classify media activities into two major categories of practical concern: usability and effectiveness.

Usability

The category involving logistics is perhaps the most important practical consideration facing a classroom teacher interested in instituting an active media program. The thought of 25 first-graders running around clicking away with 35 mm. cameras is enough to make any teacher cringe with terror. Also, not every school system is in the position to purchase all the equipment needed to produce a television video-tape. Basically, media activities can then be divided into simple, meaning that little or no equipment or mechanical expertise is required; involved, requiring some equipment and expertise; and complex, requiring special training and expensive equipment. Media activities charted along these categories would give the following results:

SIMPLE	INVOLVED	COMPLEX
1. Oral response	1. Still picture	1. 8 mm. or 16 mm. film
2. Drawings	2. Slides	2. Television video-taping
3. Puppet Shows	3. Audio-tapes	
4. Skits	4. Slide-tape presentation	
	5. Longer skits or plays	

Effectiveness

This category is largely an extension of the previous one in that the age and mechanical sophistication of the students often determine the effectiveness of the media actively involved. In general, we might say that an activity could be ineffective, partially effective, or effective in a given age group. Such a breakdown then could yield the following chart:

	INEFFECTIVE	PARTIALLY EFFECTIVE	EFFECTIVE
K-2	T.V. Video-tape 8 mm. or 16 mm. film slide-tape presentation slides longer skits, plays	Still picture	Audio tapes oral response drawings puppet shows skits
3-6	T.V. Video-tape 8 mm. or 16 mm. film	slide-tape presentation plays	audio-tapes oral response to visual stimuli puppet shows short or long skits drawings still pictures

7-8	drawings oral response to visual stimuli puppet shows T.V. video tape 8 mm. or 16 mm. film slide-tape	audio-tapes long & short skits, plays still pictures slides
9-12	drawings puppet shows oral response to visual stimuli	still pictures audio tapes slides slide-tape skit or play or all types 8 mm. or 16 mm. film T.V. video tape

A short individual study of each of these forms will better reveal their possibilities and limitations for their use in a bilingual/bicultural classroom. The following are contained under both the usability and effectiveness categories.

Oral response to visual stimuli

This could be seen as a concession to a passive use of media since the students would not have created the visual stimulus themselves. However, practical considerations of age and accompanying lack of mechanical expertise might require this type of approach. Here, the teacher presents any of the visual stimuli mentioned above, i.e. drawings, still pictures, slides, and asks the student to relate it to his/her experience. Especially in the early years, it is essential that the visual stimuli deal with the local situation, the microcosm, rather than a more global view, or macrocosm. The child could respond to a question-answer structure or simply express himself in a narrative. Remember that the bilingual/bicultural child will have been frequently exposed to the story-telling art within the ethnic context and should have mastered some of the rudiments of the art quite well by the time s/he enters school. This type of activity parallels the home situation and serves to validate the child's cultural context, especially in grades K-5.

This activity becomes partially effective in subsequent years because students are likely to want to deal with the more involved active media forms. And within the context of our discussion, use of the more passive forms such as the one described above should be minimized as the student progresses. Oral response in the narrative form to a visual stimulus can still be used at all levels at the teacher's discretion to provide a structure to assist the student in developing narrative ability.

Drawings

The first of the totally active media forms, drawings done by the student are a simple, inexpensive, and yet most effective medium for utilizing and developing both the oral and the visual tradition in the child. However, their simplicity tends to make their use suspect among older students, limiting their effectiveness primarily to grades K-5.

Once again, the microcosm or local situation is the focus here. But as opposed to the oral response to a visual stimulus provided by the teacher, the student himself selects the visual stimulus about which he will talk. The advantage here is obvious for it makes each student an "expert" in his/her area, thus increasing self-confidence and enhancing the chances for extended oral involvement. A culturally sensitive teacher is of tremendous value here for s/he can, by judicious questioning, elicit and underline a number of cultural traits. A positive discussion of such traits in class serves to validate them, at the same time validating that part of the child's cultural background. At the same time, by introducing related concepts, the teacher can enlarge the vocabulary of the student, thus enhancing his/her oral communication skills. Indeed, once begun, this seemingly simple activity can become a very complex and extremely efficient learning tool.

To show some of the possibilities mentioned above, let us assume that an elementary class is discussing the celebration of Christmas. Students would be asked to draw a picture of something about Christmas that is important to them. A typical response (my own) is shown on the next page. Once the drawings are completed, the teacher asks questions about them. A teacher-student response in a bilingual/bicultural Franco-American setting might proceed as follows. For the sake of generality, questions and answers will be given in English, though they are equally, and perhaps more effective in the native language.

Teacher — That's a very pretty tree, Paul.
Paul — (surly silence)
Teacher — There certainly are a lot of presents (Shows drawing to the class). Are all those presents yours?
Paul — No (Even children from an oral/visual cultural context take a while to warm up)
Teacher — Whose are they?
Paul — Oh, they belong to my relatives.
Teacher — You mean to your mother and father?
Paul — No, my aunts, my uncles, my cousins, all those people. (Extended vs. nuclear family concept)
Teacher — You mean you open your gifts with all of those people around.
Paul — Sure.
Teacher — So it's fun having all those people around?
Paul — Sure it is. We sing and dance, and my uncle Emilio tells funny stories.
Teacher — It sounds like a great time. (Reinforcement of cultural values.) What time do you get up to open your gifts?
Paul — Oh, we don't get up. We open them right after midnight mass.
Teacher — You mean you open them late at night?
Paul — Sure. Sometimes, we stay up til three or four in the morning.
Teacher — That sounds like fun. What do you do all that time?
Paul — Well, after we open the presents, we have a big meal. My aunt Alice makes tourtieres.
Teacher — What's a "tourtiere"?
Paul — It's a pie made with meat and potatoes and

Teacher — Is it good? Who else here has "tourtieres" at Christmas? (Unanimous show of hands, hopefully) Who knows how they are made? Could someone bring in a recipe tomorrow? Maybe we can make some in class.

The conversation could obviously be prolonged with other cultural traditions surfacing, being explained and being validated. After a certain amount of warming up, the child could even be asked to relate all the details for how his family celebrates Christmas. This could then serve as the basis for a comparison/contrast activity either with the way other children in the class celebrate Christmas or, among older children, how children in other areas celebrate the holiday. If the teacher desires, the child can be asked to make value judgements about his/her cultural background and can be led to appreciate what is positive in his/her heritage. (e.g., a discussion of why it's nice to have an extended family celebration including more presents, more children to play with, more adults who tell stories, sing, etc.)

Words that may be difficult to spell or unfamiliar to other students can be taken directly from the narratives, placed on the board when they are used and later included as part of a vocabulary unit. In other words, this simple activity can become extremely valuable in the hands of a knowledgeable and sensitive bilingual/bicultural teacher. But perhaps more importantly, by allowing the student to actively participate in the determination of what s/he will learn in terms of topic, means of communication, useful vocabulary, and important concepts, the school is replicating the learning style with which the bilingual/bicultural child is most comfortable and in which s/he performs best.

Puppets

The use of puppets has always been popular as a learning tool. However, since the onset of Sesame Street and the Muppets, the popularity of this media form in the school setting has mushroomed. And with good reason. Most puppets i.e. bag, sock, stick, are easy to create. Puppet-making is a craft that even a first grader can undertake with a good degree of success. In terms of participation, the idea of playing a role, of becoming someone else can release children from even the severest of inhibitions and allow them to become actively involved in classroom activities. In terms of needed mechanical ability, my two-year old daughter holds puppets on her hands and changes from normal to high, to low pitched voices to indicate change of characters and roles.

The basis for success of puppets seems, however, to be primarily age rather than culture oriented. Indeed, the oral/visual orientation of the bilingual/bicultural child might later inhibit his success in dealing with puppets. The reason is simple. The oral/visual tradition involves, as Rioux mentioned earlier, a transmitting of self as well as of the message. The bilingual/bicultural child surrounded by such a tradition feels no qualms about placing himself as giver of information before the audience, the receiver and might even regard the puppet and the role it

represents as an unnecessary and undesirable interference inserted between the giver and the receiver. Bilingual children from 9 to 12 years old with no previous experience in the use of puppets might then be quite unreceptive to their introduction as a learning/communicating tool, a characteristic of which the teacher should be aware. This does not eliminate their use in the classroom, but rather suggests that they be introduced with care. Generally, however, no such negativism can be found among younger students.

However, if we consider that the ideal is a totally active involvement in the activity, another problem arises. Puppet shows usually require some sort of working script as a framework. While total improvisation by children may sound attractive, it very seldomly progresses beyond the simplest of conversations, lapsing then into a Punch and Judy type of aggressor-victim relationship. How then can we provide this needed framework to children in K-2 where this activity is most effective, who would have difficulty in writing a script because of a lack of necessary skills, without eliminating the total participatory aspect? Also, how can we insure that the puppet activity in this situation does not become overly dependent on a predominately written form or a mere add-on to it?

The answer to both questions is basically the same. In order to avoid both traps, an oral/visual activity must serve as the basis for the use of puppets. Referring to the previous section, it would be the student's oral descriptions of the drawings that would be the base used for a puppet activity. Once this is established, there is no reason why, in grades K-2, the teacher cannot write down a short script from the students' oral descriptions. It would even be possible to ask the student to compose the scripts orally while the teacher "translates" them to written form. Such an approach does not deny the validity of the oral tradition because it uses it as the main means of acquiring and transmitting the information. This approach also insures student participation since they are involved in the authoring, correcting, editing, and performing of the activity.

As the students get older, they can also do the actual writing if an interest in puppets is maintained. In terms of the unit on Christmas described in the section on "Drawings," the students could use their own cultural ethnic experience to create a situation, characters and dialogue that would tell a story of how Christmas is celebrated in their specific neighborhood or town. As in the "Drawing" activity, a sensitive teacher can use puppets to bring out, discuss and validate important sections of the bilingual/bicultural child's linguistic and cultural background while, at the same time, establishing a learning style in the classroom that closely parallels that of the child's cultural tradition

Skits

Skits are similar in approach and use to puppets. In fact, skits might be more successful in getting the bilingual/bicultural child to express certain ideas simply because the interference of a third party, i.e. the

puppet, between message-giver and message-receiver is removed. Also, skits of various lengths can be used with students of any age group K-12 with success. In this activity, age is not that much of a determining factor since the complexity of the activity is flexible. Finally, skits require no expensive equipment or special arrangements and a make-believe scene can easily be set up in the classroom using resources at hand.

However, to once again avoid an overdependence on the written, the development of a skit should proceed in one of two ways. First, as was the case with puppet shows, an oral/visual activity can serve as the basis for the script. Through their answers of narratives, the students would become the principal authors, editors, and players of the script, the teacher providing whatever formal framework is necessary in terms of organization, logistics and direction. A second way of proceeding is to provide the students with a premise, a framework into which they must fit the skit. The students would then orally discuss possible lines, dialogue, action which either they or the teacher, depending upon class level, could translate into a formal script. A number of premises seem to be extremely effective in eliciting creative responses. A "man on the street" interview situation, commercials for imaginary products, simulated newscasts, re-enactments (often with much poetic license) of local or national historical events provide great opportunities for comic development while at the same time instructing participants in areas of Social Studies and Language. More serious skits can be built up around historical or contemporary events and issues.

In both situations, i.e. development from oral/visual activity or from a given premise, the teacher ideally would pick up on student's input and add pertinent supplementary information whenever possible. It is when the participation of both the teacher and the students is on a high active level that skits become a valuable tool in the bilingual/bicultural classroom.

Still pictures and slides

These two activities can be discussed together since they yield basically the same kind of product. Factors determining the use of one as opposed to the other would be mostly cost and equipment related.

In most cases, an activity centering around black and white still pictures would be the most practical, especially for younger students. The initial cost of the film is quite low and its characteristics make it virtually foolproof. Developing costs are also low and, in some cases, the school system itself has a lab set-up where older students can try their hands at developing and printing their own. In addition, every camera made accepts some sort of black and white print film. Students would therefore be likely to possess the necessary equipment. If not, cameras made especially for students and designed to take only black and white film are available for about $4.

Color prints, while looking perhaps more impressive, require more care in picture-taking. For simple cameras, color film will only yield accept-

able results in a limited number of lighting situations. Because it usually has a lower ASA number or film speed, blurs and lack of clarity often become problems, especially with young or inexperienced photographers. Finally, printing and developing costs can be prohibitive. In general, black and white can be used with equal effectiveness at a lesser cost.

Slides are also a most impressive medium. However, the main drawback here is that slides must be projected in order to be most effective. This obviously requires the use or the purchase of often expensive extra equipment. The presentation of 20 or 25 slide shows also presents some problems in logistics for the classroom teacher. Since only one can be viewed at a time, the process can be time-consuming and difficult. Still pictures have an advantage here in that they can be seen, handled, arranged and discussed without the use of extra equipment. However, the use of slides should not be eliminated completely as a possible activity. We must recognize, however, that its uses are limited to certain special circumstances.

To see how these photographic media can be used, let us assume that a class is studying a unit centering on the home town. The unit could be quite general for the lower grades or could focus in on a specific historical, political or ethnic event in higher grades. Students would be given an assignment to take pictures (or slides) of something that is important to them about their house, section of town, or the event, depending upon the focus of the class. When the pictures (or slides) were developed, students would be asked to explain what the picture is and why it was important to them. Once again, a culturally sensitive teacher can use this activity to bring out important points about the child's ethnic experience.

Once the photographs are fully discussed and teacher and peer group input added, students could be asked to write a short paragraph about each picture based on the discussion. The activity can be carried even further if desired. Each student could be asked to make-up an album including his/her pictures and the short paragraph about each photo. Or the class could do a collective activity by pooling the best pictures and their written descriptions into a class album. If slides are used, the short paragraph could be recorded on audio tape to create either an individual or a collective slide-tape presentation.

Once again, the advantages of this type of active-media activity for the bilingual child are numerous. Within the context of the larger, teacher-established unit plan, the student chooses a personal area for study. Since the area is microcosmic in focus, the student posesses an expertise in the area and feels confident in dealing with it. Also, the activity is based from the beginning on the oral/visual tradition, the written entering only after the activity has been orally discussed. This parallels the learning tradition with which the bilingual/bicultural child feels most comfortable. Finally, there are many motivating factors that can be used to insure quality oral, visual and written performance. The product (album or slide-tape presentation) can be shown to other classes within the

school, to teacher, parent or community groups, etc. It can serve as a basis for further materials development in years to come. In other words, by making the community the initial focus of the activity, and by making the final product available for community dissemination at the end, the activity loses the stigma of non-relevancy thus eliciting greater student involvement and interest.

Audio tapes

Since cassette tape recorders are now so inexpensive and easy to operate, audio-recording can be a valuable activity for most grade levels. We have already discussed their use in conjunction with slides in the previous section. However, audio tapes can also be a most effective medium when used alone or in conjunction with other simpler media forms.

Its optimum use seems to be, however, in the interview format. If we consider the focus mentioned in the previous section, i.e. a unit on a local topic, be it home, neighborhood or town oriented, then the use of audio tapes becomes extremely desirable. Family members, neighbors, civic leaders, politicians, participants in important historical events, story tellers can all be interviewed and asked to provide their important contribution to the focal topic specifically and to the educational process in general. This contribution not only assists the bilingual/bicultural child by validating his/her ethnic and cultural milieu, but also, assists educators in meeting one of the most critical needs of modern education by increasing communication between the school and the community.

Longer skits or plays

Similar principles apply to long skits or plays and their shorter versions described in Section 4 above. It is essential to mention again that an oral/visual activity must serve as the basis for the development of the written script. And again, the teacher can begin from the guidelines given for the development of shorter skits. However, the development of skits and plays longer than 15 minutes should definitely be restricted to a junior-high or high-school level classroom since even on this level, this activity requires considerable time and patience. The role-playing activities are most rewarding however and are usually well worth the time and effort required to write, edit, direct and produce an original work.

A word of caution, however. The writing of dialogue does not come naturally to most adolescents. This is especially true for the bilingual/bicultural child. Our heritage is replete with models of monologues. Story tellers, priests, parents, leaders of ethnic societies all seem to have a peculiar infatuation with the sound of their own voices. It is only natural then that the bilingual child's first attempt at writing a play or skit might be characterized by the presence of numerous long monologues with ineffective or artificial dialogue. Students should be made aware of this tendency and the teacher should be aware of different possibilities

available for changing monologues into dialogues. Some of these include inserting a reaction by another character, introducing another character into the scene to increase possibilities for interaction, creating a new character, creating a new scene, inventing action, etc.

Obviously, involvement in this activity is not for all classrooms or all teachers. Yet constructed around a local event of historical, political or ethnic importance, it can be a most effective learning/communicating tool.

Film and Video-tape

These are complex media activities which require expensive equipment and a fairly high degree of technical expertise to use. In general, they should therefore be restricted to upper grade levels.

The quality of 8 mm. films has markedly increased with the introduction of the super 8 film and camera. These are not prohibitively expensive nor is the cost of film or processing. However, in order to achieve a quality product, editing of film is necessary. This can obviously cause problems for the neophyte film producer. If students have the equipment and expertise to attempt the activity, it can be a most powerful and effective medium to express various elements of the microcosm. All the possible topics mentioned for the simpler media activities could successfully be translated onto film.

An elementary video-tape set-up requires the purchase of approximately $2,000 worth of equipment, enough to discourage many school districts. Also, as opposed to the Super 8 film camera, many video tape units cannot be used in the field. And while a porta-pack allows for some versatility, it is unreliable for lengthy field shootings. A certain amount of knowledge of video-tape editing techniques would also be useful even though video-tape can be erased to eliminate mistakes. Once again, however, we are discussing a complex activity that is not appropriate for all classrooms or all teachers. Nevertheless, if used, it serves a great motivational role as well as assisting the bilingual/bicultural student to use and develop a learning and communicating tradition with which s/he feels most comfortable.

Time vs. Schedule

It might seem to the classroom teacher that the activities mentioned above are all well and good but that they are practically impossible to implement given the exigencies of administration-imposed schedules and curricula. In addition, oral/visual activities seem so much "messier," so much more difficult to control, monitor and evaluate than do written ones and therefore less desirable for classroom use.

This is only if we continue to think of oral/visual activities in terms of their present definition. According to accepted practice, they are only used as supplementary or complementary activities, not as the focus of the activities themselves. They are considered "fluff"; and "fluff," as we all know, is difficult to organize.

But oral/visual activities are susceptible to the same type of

organization as are written ones. First, the teacher maintains content and context control by defining the focus of the activity at the beginning of the unit. The teacher can also exercise control throughout the development of the activity by establishing guidelines and limits for the scope of the students' products. By his/her questions, directions and input, the teacher can effectively guide the student to reach pre-established goals and objectives that need not differ in any way from the goals and objectives of a similar unit done through entirely written means. Finally, these goals and objectives can serve as the basis for the evaluation of a student's performance.

Once the oral/visual tradition is defined as the focus for learning activities in the classroom, and given its appeal as a learning style for bilingual/bicultural students, it will become as efficient and as manageable a classroom tool as has been the written. This leads us to one final consideration.

Oral vs. Written

The foreword to this Chapter declares that to a large extent, bilingual/bicultural education does not seek to alter the cognitive goals of the educational system but rather the means used to reach such goals. Later in the Chapter, it was stated that both the oral/visual and written traditions are equally valid learning and communicating tools. What, then, will happen to writing and reading skills in a curriculum based on predominately oral/visual activities?

The answer has perhaps already been perceived by the careful reader. The activities mentioned above do not eliminate the use of the written tradition. Often, in fact, written expression is a desirable and necessary next step in all of the oral/visual activities suggested. For example, students should be asked to write down descriptions or explanations of drawings, pictures, slides, etc. They should logically write out scripts of puppet shows, skits or plays. Narrations accompanying slide-tape presentations, films or video-tapes should also be written out and content of audio-tapes transcribed. Oral/visual activities can then serve as the basis for extended and varied exercise in writing skills. Also, by exerting control over the activity, the teacher can include specific vocabulary, spelling and grammar principles in the students' work scope. And, as individual projects are completed, they can serve as material for reading practice by other members of the class.

The advantages of this means of teaching writing and reading skills are numerous. First the student is dealing with and actively using words and expressions which are meaningful to him. Secondly, the student's repeated active use of words or constructions make their retention easier and faster. Finally, by providing an outlet for dissemination of the student-produced material to a larger audience, i.e. other students, other classes, teachers, parents, community, the motivation for use of correct spelling, grammar, pronunciation becomes student initiated. No one wants his/her picture album with accompanying paragraphs distributed

unless the written text is grammatically correct. No one wants to use an incorrect word, pronounced incorrectly on an audio tape or in the middle of a script. Indeed, a curriculum which used oral/visual activities as its focus could enhance writing and reading skills as quickly and less painfully than an entire book of vocabulary drills, grammar exercises or comprehension tests.

The story is told of an efficiency study done on two different types of cafeteria arrangements. In the first type or "limited access", customers were taken in a controlled straight line from soups to desserts. Food selection, in other words, had to be made in the order that the different courses were to be eaten. In the second type or "free access", customers were allowed to go to different "stations" set up around the periphery of the room and select their food in whatever order they wished. Logic would seem to say that the first arrangement would be the more efficient one. The linear approach appeals to our occidental mindset. However, it is, in fact the "free access" approach which is the more efficient. It is this approach which has been almost universally adopted in newer cafeterias.

I insert this story here mainly to show that often the most straightforward, head-on means to reach a goal are not necessarily the most efficient or effective. For years, in order to teach reading and writing skills, we have concentrated on often artificial means and have totally ignored the bilingual/bicultural child's aptitudes for oral/visual expression. By inserting active audio-visual methodology into the curriculum, we, as educators, can not only help develop a useful and necessary learning-communicating tradition but can, at the same time, assist the child to learn effective writing and reading skills.

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Structure and Content in The Design of Bilingual-Multicultural Curriculum

Martha Montero

Foreword

The design of bilingual-multicultural curriculum, like that of any curriculum, needs to be derived from a sound pedagogy. In addition to the usual development of materials, tasks, tests, and activities, bilingual curriculum requires more. It is curriculum that has been designed for a specific target language population with varying student entry and exit points and different grouping patterns. Pedagogically, bilingual curriculum can be described as curriculum (materials, texts, resources, indexes, etc.) that is part of a bilingual program where instruction is in two languages. Specific subject areas such as social studies, math, and language arts may be written in English or in the native language of the student. Furthermore, wherever such curriculum is used, it is the interplay and interaction between teacher and students together with the materials that give bilingual curriculum its unique character. Bilingual multicultural curriculum can be thus theoretically considered as both a product and a process of bilingual education.

Introduction

In the academic world, bilingual education is by its very nature interdisciplinary in scope; it borrows many of its ideas from the social sciences, from anthropology, sociology, psychology, and linguistics, as well as from other disciplines. In the field, bilingual education in this country is grassroots in its orientation and, hence, borrows directly from the local culture, the local folk, and the local community.

To link the role of bilingual education in the academic world with bilingual education in the field is a task which requires a clear understanding of the societal, economic, political, and community forces that influence the development of a curriculum. When such an understanding exists, bilingual-multicultural curriculum becomes more than a mere compilation of commercially-made materials which are adapted for classroom use. It is curriculum that has been planned, developed, programmed, and can readily be implemented through concrete unit and lesson plans that reflect the complexities of linguistically and culturally diverse students.

In those situations where teachers, knowledgeable of general curriculum theory and practice, are confronted with a classroom of

culturally and linguistically diverse students, questions arise as to whether there are any significant differences between "traditional" and bilingual-multicultural curriculum. Some of these questions are:

a) How does a teacher begin to plan the curriculum?
b) What are the major areas to be considered?
c) What are some of the structural elements to be taken into account?
d) What may be considered a "meaningful experience" for the bilingual student?
e) What content information actually comes across to the student?
f) How can the teacher measure and evaluate student progress when using such curriculum?
g) What are some of the obstacles to be considered in designing the curriculum?
h) What reading levels are to be included?
i) How does a teacher work with students who are having difficulty in reading or writing in their native language?
j) Is parent input to be considered in the design of the curriculum?
k) Will such curriculum significantly affect the students?
l) Can the curriculum *teach* language and culture?

These are only a few of the myriad of questions that the design of bilingual-multicultural curriculum attempts to answer.

This chapter focuses on the pedagogical implications of designing bilingual-multicultural curriculum. It does not attempt to provide teachers with prescriptive answers but rather raise the type of questions that will enable them to formulate their own answers. Beginning with an explanation of what bilingual multicultural curriculum may entail, its boundaries, limitations, and possibilities, the learner will then turn to a sequential development of the structure and content of a specific unit plan. The unit plan will deal with those pedagogical skills that are the basis of a logical and cohesive plan of study. Several teacher strategies, as well as goals, objectives, materials, activities, and evaluation schemes, are suggested. A sample unit plan with multilingual samples of a lesson plan is included as a suggestion for the learner.

Bilingual curriculum means different things to different people. For some educators, bilingual curriculum implies a set of materials that have been written in two languages. For others, it means a collection of imported commercially-made materials that are used in addition to the basic English textbooks or non-English materials such as books of readings, textbooks, readers, grammar books, mathematics texts, and others that are adopted for specific subject areas which are required by law in a bilingual program. For still others, it means the use of unit and lesson plans which are directly translated from English into another language or which are simultaneously translated during class time from English into the students' native language. Also included under the rubric of bilingual curriculum are English-as-a-second-language readers and materials.

It is apparent that the different meanings and definitions of bilingual curriculum depend to a great extent on the language policies that the

administrators of a given program have adopted for use. The meaning of bilingual curriculum is therefore highly contingent on the administration's philosophy of bilingual education, on the type of model being used, on the number of languages used as means of instruction, and on the type of program adopted, whether it be a variety of the transitional or maintenance model on the direction that the program is taking towards assimilation, acculturation, and integration, or on the type of change exposed.

Even within certain administrative and legislative constraints, the possibilities for bilingual curriculum design are broad. Well-designed bilingual curriculum attempts to capture the learning experiences of limited English speakers and to organize these into comprehensive goals. These then become expanded into effective instructional materials. For example, a class discussion of different birthday celebrations may be the perfect occasion for collecting information about the background of different students. This process may become a collective effort to bridge whatever ethnic or language differences there may be in the class. The teacher can explain and show how such information may be collected, help the student analyze and interpret the data, and then interject cues for developing self-concept and identity. Goals can thereby be formulated by both teacher and students.

In bilingual education, in addition to Tyler's four learning characteristics for attaining objectives — that is to say, the learning experiences which will develop skills in (1) thinking, (2) acquiring information, (3) developing social attitudes, and (4) developing interests (Tyler, 1949; 68-80) — it is necessary to add learning experiences that will develop language use, cultural awareness, and development of self-concept and individual identity, in order to attain the primary goal of bilingual curriculum — students functionally competent in two languages.

In order to determine the learning experiences that will enable students to attain functional competence, it becomes clearly important to know *why*, *how*, *when*, *where*, *what*, and *for whom* bilingual curriculum needs to be developed.

Who needs bilingual curricula? For whom is bilingual curriculum being created? These are two of the more serious questions to be addressed. Is it for Spanish surnamed students? ESL students? Recent immigrants? Illiterate adults? Travellers? Community liaison personnel? Elementary, secondary, higher education students? Parents? Obviously, one needs to know the characteristics of the population where the curriculum is to be implemented.

It is often the case that the decision for the development of a bilingual program has been established through legislation, but in other instances, it is through local community awareness and school efforts that a program is developed. It is a well-known fact that there is no *one* bilingual model to be adopted across the nation. Some school districts have designed their own models or brands of bilingual education programs. In many cases, the local community and the parent and student input have been incorporated into full-fledged programs like the Lansing

program, the Dade County programs, the Coral Way School program, and so on. Nonetheless, policies concerning who is to be served by the program need to be defined adequately and appropriately.

How do bilingual curriculum patterns differ from traditional curriculum?[1] Incoming students may need to be considered for entry and exit points in terms of the content of the curriculum. Some of the questions raised are:

a) Has the incoming student been assessed on his language dominance and proficiency?
b) Is the information on parents' language and background sufficient to know where such a student is to be placed?
c) Is there a need for interviewing the parents?
d) What is the home language?
e) How often has the student changed environments?
f) Is the language the student brings to school the language used in the school textbooks?
g) Will specific readers in that student's home language be available?

The same type of questions might apply to those students entering or leaving the classroom:

a) What skills will the student acquire?
b) What will the student be able to do after undertaking specific subject areas?
c) Will the student be able to function adequately in two languages? Maybe more?

The flexibility of the program becomes increasingly important for those students who after two or three years are required to attend all-English classrooms in a transitional program.

When is the most appropriate time to implement bilingual curriculum? This generally depends on a needs assessment, an evaluation, and/or a sheer program demand. It may also be a matter of state legislation as is the case of Massachusetts under the Transitional Bilingual Education Law. When the number of children with limited English-speaking ability is such that they require attention, then it is the job of the school district to meet those needs. Many schools are developing their programs from consent decree compliances with the Civil Rights Law. In any event, bilingual curriculum needs built-in evaluation procedures that reflect such needs. Questions relating to this issue are:

a) Has a language assessment based on dominance and proficiency been made of students warranting a bilingual program?
b) Does the curriculum have continuity from one grade level to another?
c) Are the materials sequenced?
d) Does the curriculum call for integration or diversification of students' interests and groupings?
e) How is the curriculum to be implemented?

[1] For an extensive explanation see William Mackey's *Typology of Bilingual Education*. Mackey distinguishes among 10 possible types of curriculum patterns ranging from single medium acculturat transfer to dual medium equal maintenance/Mackey, p. 19-72.

f) What role do teachers, teacher aides, and paraprofessionals play in the curriculum?

Where is such a curriculum implemented? The question of *where* such a curriculum is implemented becomes important. It may be for some communities that a bilingual curriculum covers a total program of K-12 or beyond; or it may be that in a given community the elementary level is the most in need of a program. (In some instances, a well-established elementary program with a flexible high school program may answer the needs of that student population.) In any event, it is the task of the developer to be aware of the age level of the student population, male to female ratio, the student to teacher ratio, and the assessment levels for which the curriculum is being developed.

Another significant factor that enters into the implementation of bilingual curriculum is the question of whether the curriculum is being regionally defined or whether it can be used nationally. Developing Spanish curriculum does not necessarily mean that it can be used or adapted by any Hispanic group to represent its own variety of language or culture. A case in point is the multitude of words that exist for given objects. For example, a kite is considered to be "papalote" in Mexico, but "chiringa o volantin" in Puerto Rico, or "huila" in New Mexico, or "cometa" in Peru. There are other numerous incidents of this type of variations. (See Nila Marrone's article in the *Revista Bilingue*, Vol. I, May-August, 1974, pp. 152-158, where she identifies several lexical variations on 43 objects pertaining to office use, domestic use, transportation, and clothing.)

The decision as to *what* is to be taught in a bilingual curriculum is critical. In the now classic *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, Tyler (1949) points out that the rationale for developing any curriculum or plan of instruction arises with the identification and the answering of four fundamental questions:

1) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

The same holds true for bilingual curriculum design. Moreover, the purpose of the school needs to be understood within the community context.

The question of ends and means is fundamental to bilingual curriculum. Bilingual educators may have to face questions such as:

a) To what end is a bilingual program developed and implemented?
b) Is it representative of the community's needs, and if so, is it considered to be more than compensatory education?
c) What will the educational experience of a bilingual program be?
d) Are the educational experiences thought of as remedial?
e) Do they enhance the total educational program of the school by providing additional classes, i.e. Spanish for the Spanish-speaking, bilingual secretarial training, English as a second language, basic

adult education programs?
f) Are these experiences solely for the bilingual students?
g) Can monolingual students take part in the program?
h) Will such experiences allow for more individualized programming if necessary?

The question of *how* these experiences become effectively organized in a bilingual program affects the determination of teacher goals and objectives. Some teachers may contract for a specific goal or may use the educational experiences with their students to develop teacher-made materials which can then be systematically developed at different grade levels.

The last question: How can programs be evaluated? is perhaps the most important for bilingual programs. As was mentioned before, successful bilingual programs have been identified yet their success has not been due to one factor alone. Actually, there are as many factors involved in the programs as there are communities sponsoring them. In any case, the attainment of the school's goals can be measured by student achievement, but in some instances, it may well be measured by community participation and parent commitment. The one factor that seems to distinguish the successful programs from others is the degree of commitment stemming from the community. This is apparent in the Southwest programs. One needs to question whether bilingual curriculum can be developed in a school where community participation, parent input and teacher commitment are lacking. Discussion on curriculum which matches student needs abounds. (See Joyce's *Models of Teaching*, 1972.) But knowing the student needs is not enough. Decisions involving bilingual curriculum are not limited to the classroom. They are decisions which should ideally stem from the community as well.

Determining the procedural steps involved in carrying out the bilingual curriculum involves another set of questions which cluster around teachers, students, parents, and administrators. Once a consensus has been reached on the type of bilingual curriculum the community wants, then it becomes the administrator's role to implement such a program. Aside from establishing a bilingual program with teachers, teacher aides, lay personnel, and parents or paraprofessionals, the administration of a bilingual program often establishes a set of priorities or policies that will best serve its students. One of the highest priorities is identifying those students with limited English-speaking ability and assessing their language competency. While much is still not known about language assessment, by assessing students at their point of entry into a program (whether it be a transitional or maintenance program), a teacher is in a better position to recognize the students' strengths and weaknesses. Many teachers use a combination of strategies, including individualized techniques, to obtain the best learning situation for each student. Objectives based on attainable goals can then be spelled out by the teacher in conjunction with the students. The long-range objectives will be built upon specific objectives which can

be sequenced by: (1) order of difficulty, (2) matching of student's learning style, (3) content area, or (4) degree of preference and/or priority. This procedure assumes that the progression of the student has been discussed and that the student and teacher have contracted to work within a given scope.

One of the major obstacles that teachers encounter is the need to determine to what degree they must use or create individualized instruction packets. Many teachers wonder if they need to create materials for each of the children in their class and they are often dismayed at the thought of having to develop separate sets of different materials for their students. There are several ways to go around this problem. One way may be the *grouping* of students. This requires the teacher to know the students sufficiently to group them according to levels, interests, or specific subject areas or skill development. Another is *monitorial tutoring*, whereby certain class members, lay personnel or teacher aides can become the "teacher" for the group and lead the discussion. Another way is by having *work built around student competencies*. After assessing the range of individual skills, the teacher may want to work in conjunction with a teacher aide who reviews the skills with the students, gives specific tasks and orientation, and works on a one-to-one basis. Still another way is *individualized task development* which focuses on the student's self-programmed instruction or activities relating the performance of tasks once class explanations and clarifications have been made. At this point, the student may become actively or passively responsive depending on the motivation and own mastery of the task. The ideal situation for task performance exists when at each step the student achieves sufficient mastery to go on to the next. This is part of the building block basis for task analysis and synthesis.

Most of these steps relate to the learning situation, which is the process of teaching bilingual curriculum, but also the way such a process fits into the school system program. Some of the questions to be asked in this regard are:

a) Has the curriculum received the administration's support?
b) Is the bilingual curriculum considered as part of the total school curriculum?
c) Are guidelines spelled out for the program and the curriculum?
d) What teacher goals are included in the revision plans of the curriculum?
e) In what form are teacher goals formulated in the curriculum, by contractual arrangements, subject area, task or skill development?

Again these are some of the many concerns in the field. From the above it can be seen that the design of bilingual curriculum is not restricted in materials, content and structure, language and format, but it is eclectic, instead. In terms of teacher training, bilingual curriculum planning and design allows teachers *to know* the components which make for "good" teaching, and the *whys* of bilingual education.

As far as this chapter is concerned, bilingual curriculum refers to

the organizing role that unit and lesson plans play in teacher training. Since learning is a cumulative process based on reinforcement, the emphasis of this chapter as mentioned before will be on the development of a flexible sample unit plan or source plan for teachers. The field of folklore will be the focus, since certain generic concepts of folklore cross culture. Lesson plans dealing with similar content materials can be expressed in French, Spanish, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, and other languages without necessarily being literal translations of English into another language, and without having to have parallel content matter.

The following section, directed to the development of a unit plan in folklore as an example of curriculum design, is only a suggested format and therefore has flexibility for including any sections that a teacher may want to add or introduce. A general flow chart specifying the structure and content of a unit plan follows a product and process format.

Structural Components in the Design of Unit Plans/Modules

Simply stated, the construction of a unit plan can be understood as the building of conceptual ideas and skills around a specific topic, a theme, a series of lesson plans or around certain source information (data) that are to be taught. In general, all unit plans specify the reason for their design, their usage, their scope, and how they are to be evaluated.

The structure of unit plans has not varied much in the last 10-15 years. There has nevertheless been a growing emphasis on the role of objectives, their specifications and required performance levels, the concern for relevancy, for materials devoid of racist and sexist stereotypes, the focus on evaluation, and new testing measurements such as criterion reference testing, systems management, and the like.

In addition, the process of planning, developing, implementing and evaluating unit plans is not necesssarily considered separate from the actual teaching experience. In many schools, curriculum planning sessions are part of the teachers' work load. One day per week is spent on redefining goals, objectives and materials. In other schools, the planning of curriculum and unit plan development are assumed to be self-contained in the textbooks and materials that a teacher receives.

The amount of planning that precedes the development and the implementation and evaluation of such plans is by far one of the most critical, yet one of the most disregarded areas in the design of unit plans. The assumption is that if the structure of the unit plan is outlined on paper, then the real test determining whether it works or not will be found in the classroom. Often teachers assume that since they have gone over the unit plan several times for several

years, they have clearly understood what the rationale is, and therefore, need not write out in detail what may be some of the difficulties or "roadblocks" to be encountered. The feeling is that those obstacles will be dealt with as they arise and not before.

It is my contention that the planning of unit plans with clearly stated rationales and assumptions will enable teachers to systematically weed out and discard irrelevant information by being logical and cohesive in the mapping of their ideas. Even for the purpose of reviewing commercially-made materials, the knowledge of *what* constitutes a rationale, and *what* may be unclear assumptions will allow teachers to decide whether such texts will indeed represent the objectives formulated in their rationale.

The evaluation of such unit plans will likewise become more simplified if the criteria developed in the rationale can be tested, measured, or assessed so as to ascertain whether the students have acquired the knowledge transmitted by the teacher.

It is therefore vitally important that teachers recognize that the "thinking out" of a unit plan is what will determine the success of later unit plans; only then will the teacher have the capacity to determine what is to be included and what is to be excluded. The thinking and the planning of a unit plan is perhaps 60% of the task of teaching.

Before discussing the various structural components in detail, let us examine what these components are in any unit plan, whether the plan is based on teacher sources, topics or student-teacher plans. There are as many approaches to constructing unit plans as there are focuses. In the present case, we suggest the following structure:

i. A topic which may entail several sub-topics or one major theme or organizing idea
ii. A specific rationale as to why such a unit is being developed
iii. The statement of the assumptions underlying the rationale: empirical, historical, value, ethical, moral, cultural, linguistic, etc.
iv. Goals and objectives with their criteria. (See Arlene Dueifer's chapter for further distinctions.)
v. Specific teacher strategies to be used in accordance with the specified objectives
vi. Activities that will lead to attaining the specified objectives
vii. The types of materials to be used (audio visual, texts, teacher-made, etc.)
viii. The evaluation scheme that will be employed in order to assess whether the objectives have been attained or not

Since the content will depend on the subject area, theme, or topic that is to be taught, the content will have its own dimensions, which are: scope, sequence, and continuity, as well as bilingual and multicultural aspects that will permeate the entire curriculum.

The unit plan can be graphically visualized as a major block within a series of building blocks that constitute the curriculum. In our representation of both the structure and the content, can be seen the language, cultural and social factors, among many others, that apply to bilingual-

multicultural experiences.

Step 1: Topic Selection

It is often the case that the selection of a topic is a haphazard decision without any plan in mind. Topics are randomly and arbitrarily selected. Historical or chronological topics which are traditionally found in textbooks are favored in lieu of the more innovative and less experimental topics. Moreover, if topics are listed as part of a unit package, the teacher may often buy the total program on the assumption that ready-made and available topics will be provided.

Few topics are selected on the basis of class interest or specific interests. It is assumed that selection of topics can be made on the basis of what the teacher offers to the learner, the teacher often being considered as the active agent and the learner as the passive recipient.

In other instances, attraction for the exotic, or in many cases, for the practical, has greater appeal to the teacher than the problematic or what may involve moral dilemmas. For example, in many curriculum presentations in New England, I have heard teachers express genuine interest in developing materials which are relevant to the classroom and also innovative and appealing to the students. But time and again, teachers developing social studies unit plans for studying American Indians have avoided the nearby Indian groups and have instead selected distant groups. It is as if studying the Dakotas or the Siouxs is safer and less demanding than studying the Passamoquoddy or Abenaki that live nearby.

What this shows is that in the selection of a topic, those areas that generate grassroots interest are often not addressed, although bilingual education is grassroots education in this country, and curriculum designed to reflect the community, the barrio, the city, or the town may be most effective for learning in bilingual-multicultural settings.

In recent years, the introduction of community participation in education as well as the participation of parents and aides in the learning process has led to closing the gap between the school and the community. The learner is no longer isolated from his home environment, but rather represents the link between the community and the school. When this is recognized by curriculum developers, the needs of the specific community can be analyzed, they can be studied and they can become a source for teachers who are designing their own curriculum. Topic selection may then reflect the needs of the community, the needs of the target language group, and the needs of the learner population. In many instances, these topics may derive from the values and the attitudes that the learners or the community express. For example, the teacher may develop a curriculum on the ethnic make-up of the class. Rather than focussing on the immigration patterns of the ethnic group, the teacher may decide to have the students classify the streets in the community by their ethnic make-up and arrive at a mapping of immigration waves into the community, the languages that are spoken (in the home, in the street, by the merchants, by the established store owners,

etc.), and the areas of interest (the church, the playgrounds, the main square, the local pub, etc.). This microcosmic approach becomes an ethnographic projection for analyzing the greater complexities of the macrocosmic world.

Another advantage of selecting topics on the basis of a micro-to-macro or concentric circle approach is that more alternatives can be recognized by the school and the community. Learners will come to know who are the "responsible," decision makers in the community; they will come to know who are their resource people, who are the leaders in the community, and the "elders." By actually involving themselves directly with the community and its own realities, students can then transfer the learning experiences of this world to "that world." (see Fig. 2).

Among the criteria for the selection of topics are the following:

FIGURE 2

CONCENTRIC LEARNING CIRCLE

a) Select a topic that has relevance to the classroom student population.
b) Select a topic that addresses itself to a given group concern or is problematic.
c) Select a topic that expresses universal values and attitudes which can be used in the curriculum, i.e. family life and behavior, social relationships, school peer groups, etc.
d) Select a topic with humanistic qualities from which social action may be derived, i.e. social concerns of the group, minority group membership, etc.
e) Select a topic that goes beyond the confines of a specific context or description, i.e. a day in the life of a bilingual student compared to a day in the life of a monolingual student, the role of aunts and uncles in the family of both students.
f) Select a topic that has stated goals and objectives that are clear.
g) Select a topic that allows for the observation and analysis of the teaching and learning process, i.e. topics that have student reaction or group reaction, projects or research activities as outcomes, etc.

The topic selected may be the prevailing theme underlying the focus of the unit plan. If this is so, then the topic can be covered by a series of lesson plans or, if necessary, by a series of additional unit plans. The topic may be such that it cuts across different subject areas and has generic concepts that may be used in math, art, science, social studies, language arts, etc. Certain topics will have the elasticity to be expanded or contracted by time, interest, appeal, and student motivation.

Step 2: Rationale

The planning of a bilingual curriculum is built upon a rationale or a justification of why given unit plans or modules are being produced. In addition, the rationale explains what the major focus is, as well as what concerns may be involved. The individual unit plan is structured, for the most part, to answer specific needs, questions, problems, and assumptions that exist in the teacher's or students' minds.

The rationale may be explicit (with detailed information given to the reader) or implicit (when no actual statement is made, but its meaning is found in the content). The problem is how does one teach what has not been thought out, discussed or even conceived as being significant? In bilingual education, the need for explaining what is the purpose behind the creation of certain materials is crucial. The teacher cannot assume that his/her intent for designing or developing materials is clear to the school administration, the parents, or the students. The fact is that unless the materials have stated purposes, their use can become suspect.

A rationale is therefore the statement of one's intentions. It is a series of logical arguments that sustain the philosophical and practical reasons for the teaching of certain knowledge. Specific criteria for the selection of content and instructional strategies can therefore be defined. Without a rationale, one cannot know why specific information is more important than other and why it necessarily needs to be taught. In essence, the

rationale is what holds the unit plan together.

Step 3: Assumptions

Underlying every rationale, there are a series of assumptions that combine pedagogical as well as language and cultural variables. In the design of bilingual curriculum, one comes across series of assumptions regarding the nature of bilingual education. Embedded in bilingual curriculum are some assumptions regarding the role of culture, linguistic varieties, socio-economic status, the nature of thinking, moral assumptions and many others.

Briefly stated, these assumptions can be divided into the following general categories:

Empirical Assumptions

Those assumptions that relate to the perceived social, economic, and political realities of a given community. For example, realistic understanding of the environment suggests that exploitation of natural resources for the development of industry can no longer be explained without taking into consideration the effect of such exploitation on human resources, pollution, and the environment. By the same token, unless socio-economic realities are considered, influential factors in the make up of the school population, the design of any bilingual curriculum will tend to be unrepresentative and unrealistic. As Tyler, Gower, Scott, and other educators have pointed out, the design of curriculum cannot be done in a vacuum. The social, economic, political, and cultural realities, better known as the existing social theory, need to be considered for their influence and impact on curriculum design.

Historical Assumptions

Those assumptions that relate to history and historical consciousness. As nothing in curriculum is unrelated, it is important to develop a frame of reference describing one's point of view in order to give the curriculum perspective. Decisions regarding the role of history enter into these assumptions. Is the given topic to be viewed from a historical perspective of the past, present, and/or future? Does the specific event or topic relate to present conditions? For example, for a social studies class, reading about an important historical event may bring to light other significant features. The flood that occurred in Lewiston, Maine in 1936, as recorded through newspaper editorials, can be viewed from various points of view in terms of situation context as the crisis that brought people together, or in terms of the role of Franco-Americans in the flood, the reorganization and remodeling of the town, the role of the church in the past and in the flood activities, etc. The historical perspective permits more than one view to be regarded as valid and authentic. In a sense, only through such a perspective can a unit topic grow and can accuracy, reliability, and authenticity be enhanced. By placing the topic in historical perspective, hero worship and stereotyping as well as one-dimensional analysis may be avoided, while issues that are relevant to

bilingual curriculum may be dealt with, such as the issues of domination, colonialism, alienation, dislocation, assimilation, acculturation and others.

Cultural Assumptions

Those assumptions that relate culture both as a product and as a process. Culture as a product includes classification of what are considered traits for a given ethnic group. Culture as a process attempts to address itself to concepts like ethnocentrism, demystifying stereotypes, pigeon-holing, and cultural determinism. By pointing out similarities and differences between and among groups, the teacher can highlight particular behaviors and universal patterns. Questions that are raised in this area are:

a) What standards are being addressed? The standards of the dominant cu ture?
b) Are minority cultures given equal time?
c) How are they represented?
d) Are the illustrations and colors representative of the ethnic groups physical characteristics and contextual settings?
e) Are the behaviors and personality configurations of one group used as a model for others?
f) Can one speak of all Hispanics as being culturally the same?
g) Is room given for individual group differences?
h) Are comparisons of cultures overt or covert?
i) Are the rural backgrounds or urban backgrounds of the ethnic groups represented in a non-derogatory manner?
j) What is being learned culturally by learners in a multicultural setting?
k) What are some of the methods of instructions vis-a-vis cultural implications?
l) Are the cultural attitudes of the learner taken into account?
m) What cultural values and attitudes are being expressed?
n) Are sexual differences addressed? How?

Regardless of how the teacher approaches the topic, culture concepts cannot be avoided. Whether or not to include some of the above questions must be decided. One cannot be culture-free without setting up some type of standards or norms to be met by the group. This is particularly important in those materials that reflect multicultural influences.

Linguistic Assumptions

Those assumptions relating to the language standard that is used. Teachers assume that the only language that prevails is the language of the classroom. Mackey has pointed out that if one studies the language behavior of the learner at home in relation to school language requirements, there are five types of bilingual learners:

a) Unilingual home language is school language (U + S)
b) Unilingual home language is not school language (U — S)
c) Bilingual home language include one school language (B + S)
d) Bilingual home languages exclude school languages (B — S)
e) Bilingual home language include both school languages (B + SS)

It can be seen that the linking pattern for many bilingual students is

the home in relation to the school and of course the larger community. It is therefore essential that the primary language of the students be identified. The language of the school may also be further differentiated if the language of the teacher is not the language of the students. To dismiss such distinct variables means to disregard the student's background.

Teachers at some point within bilingual programs need to decide whether they will focus on the standard language as the norm and whether they will accept dialectal (other language varieties) as well. For students to hear that Castilian Spanish, that Parisian French or Continental Portuguese is the only norm is to label their own language variety or idiolect as "bad." Furthermore, there is the lingering implication that what they do know of their own language is insufficient or needs to be raised up to par. The rationale deals very concretely with the issues of language and deciding what language is to be used, how it is "corrected," how it is used in interaction patterns, whether glossaries for unfamiliar languages are developed, etc.

Ethical or Value Assumptions

Those assumptions about choices, decision-making and value questions and how these are to be handled in the classroom. No teaching is value free; for teachers to recognize to what degree and with what orientation they need to deal with moral dilemmas is a factual reality of urban education. Whatever approach is used (whether Kohlberg's approach to moral education, or Piaget's developmental stages, or any ramification of humanistic, moral education) the same holds true in bilingual curriculum. Value questions regarding stereotypes, cultural comparisons, sexist depictions need to be addressed:

a) What values are to be taught?
b) For what reasons and with what objective are they important?
c) Why are some values chosen over others?
d) Are the values of the dominant group the same as those of the minority group?
e) When are values overtly and covertly stated?

Even the selection of what to include or to exclude in the materials becomes an issue involving value decisions. By identifying those values that are esteemed by the group and may cause conflict with other value patterns, the teacher is in a position to present alternatives or resolve value conflicts rather than focus on the control of the values to be learned. Value assumptions are therefore a very significant part of the classroom learning situation.

Nature of Thinking

Those assumptions that pertain to what knowledge is most worthy of being learned. The focus of such an assumption is on the cognitive process of the students, the clarification and definitions of thinking and assessment of levels of thinking in curriculum implementation. While it is feasible to rely on Bloom's taxonomies for the cognitive and affective domains, it is advisable to include language and culture domains for

bilingual curriculum. Understanding knowledge and the manner in which it is transmitted along with cultural factors is essential to bilingual curriculum. Teachers need to define what *they* mean by thinking and help students learn what constructs approximate its meaning. To develop objectives without regard to learning styles of bilingual children is to deny cognitive differences. In some cases, teachers may be content with critical thinking or with presenting evidence for dialectal thinking. The point is that thinking is an integral part of determining the success of any learning experience. Through thinking meanings are understood.[2]

Other Teacher Assumptions

Within the range of assumptions held by teachers are those that are idiosyncratic and which relate to specific ways of thinking, teacher, contexts, etc. These are assumptions that are often derived from the teacher-training programs or from the actual experiences of the classroom.

Step 4: Goals and Objectives

While goals in curriculum generally fall into the categories of cognitive domain, affective domain, process or skill development, generic concepts, problem solving, one can also add to these cultural domain and linguistic domain when designing bilingual curriculum. For understanding this step, teachers need to clarify and relate the concepts. In the planning of curriculum, objectives become the means of ends and means by which the goals are attained. In bilingual curriculum the goals are particularly important insofar as they relate back to the rational and assumptions that cover the entire unit plan. Curriculum objectives need to be formulated in as specific and detailed a characterization of objectives as possible. Since the curriculum objectives need to refer back to the goals, it becomes increasingly important to consider objectives not as isolated cases, but as an extension of a network connecting back to the goals and back to the rationale.[3]

Step 5: Teacher Strategies:

Teacher strategies as we suggest in this handbook refer not only to the organizational management of the classroom but also to the types of learning approaches that a teacher identifies for the students. What is to be learned and with what methods needs to be described in as accurate and comprehensive a manner as possible as to allow teachers to organize and manage their classrooms to those ends. The teacher needs to decide on such organizational issues as spacing, grouping, pacing of students, and so on. This is, of course, highly contingent on the type of teacher and learner roles that have been established in the classroom as well as the type of interaction patterns that have been developed. If one

[2]For an elaborate analysis of the realms of meaning, see *Realms of Meaning* by P.H. Phenix. New York: McGraw Hill, 1964.

[3]See Arlene Duelfer's Chapter for more elaboration on this subject.

can see a classroom as an environment where there is a constant ebb and flow of interaction, ideas, and behaviors, then it is simple to recognize that specifying one method does not necessarily mean that the method is isolated from other possible methodologies or overlapping methods. It is therefore quite sound to spell out what general methodology is to be used in the classroom but to indicate variations of this and other possible outcomes. For example, a general breakdown of teacher methods may be along oral and non-oral instruction. The following are examples of each:

Oral

1. The lecture
2. The round table and panel
3. The "Socratic" method
4. The discussion
5. The visiting speaker or guest lecturer
6. Committee activities
7. Group reports
8. Readings
9. Audio-visual aids
10. Guide recall
11. Task performance
12. Experiment: by teacher, by students
13. Symbolic association

Non-Oral

1. Textbook
2. Supervised study
3. Library and research assignments
4. Homework activities
5. Problem solving
6. Workbook approach
7. Field trips
8. Term papers
9. Audio-visual aids

Another series of teacher methods may be based on a variety of learning approaches. These can be identified as: the didactic, programmed instruction, the discovery method, the inquiry approach (question and answer), by doing, through dramatization, through representation, experimental role playing, simulation, and a combination of these.

The fact is that the teacher transmits knowledge through either a deductive, inductive, or electric approach in order to attain a given goal. The inductive attempts to move from a series of specific ideas to more general ones by a process of gathering factual information. The deductive proceeds from general ideas to more concrete and specific facts. The eclectic strategies refer to using alternate methods for given situations. None of these approaches is mutually exclusive and some may be more appropriate in certain teacher or learning situations. With the bilingual student, the recognition of what strategies or methods are to be used and for what purpose becomes extremely important. Ideally, what is needed is an appropriate matching of teacher's method to student, learning style and context.

The belief that one can approach teaching by using a cookbook approach is not only erroneous but totally out of context. One's own type of strategy arises from the positive and negative experiences that are identified in the classroom. Many of the methods are linked to a

given educational philosophy, so that strategies for value clarifications will vary from strategies for humanistic, and moral education or open classroom education. Knowing where one stands on one's philosophy of education is a beginning toward developing one's own set of strategies and style.

Insofar as bilingual curriculum is concerned, teacher strategies develop subjectively from the classroom's interaction. The teacher comes to know the students and their learning styles to the extent that he/she can guide them along a given path to what can be realistically fulfilled.

Step 6: Activities

The activities in a classroom are contingent on the objectives, the teacher strategies and school's time schedule. Activities are developed around small and large groups, and individuals. If the schedule is modular, there may be a lecture combined with small group meetings during the school week. On the other hand, if the schedule is based on a 45-minute period, then the student within the classroom may be further divided into, e.g., a small group with one task, a discussion group with a teacher, and a reading group with a teacher aide. As it is obvious that the activity will reflect the teaching strategy and the types of objectives that are defined, it is quite common then for an activity to be directly linked with materials. For the purpose of this paper, activities are considered separate from materials only insofar as they represent a block in the building of a unit plan. Generally activities and materials are classified together.

Step 7: Materials

A variety of materials can be used by bilingual teachers. These are:

a) Materials developed abroad without adaptation for use in the United States (such as many readers from Spain, France, Portugal, etc.)
b) Materials translated from English into the learner's native language without any type of adaptation.
c) Materials translated and rewritten in the learner's native language so as to be more suitable.
d) Materials written specifically for the needs of the American ethnic group.
e) Resource materials with culture capsules or checklists.
f) Commercially published bilingual-multicultural materials.

In many instances, commercially published materials may be useful, but teachers frequently develop their own set of materials in addition to commercially made ones, using the latter only as needed. Bilingual-multicultural materials presently being developed in the Materials Development and Dissemination Centers of the National Bilingual Education Network include readers, resource guides, and background information that pertains directly to a given ethnic group.

In addition, bilingual materials can be classified as product materials or process materials. By product materials, I am referring to those

readers and texts that approach the content as a classification scheme, a material culture approach. By process materials I mean readers, texts, and projects that attempt to deal with values and attitudes with identify and self-concept with cultural behaviors.

The materials must be attuned to the type of activities that are expected, and it is in this area that the concern for audio-visual materials becomes important. What cannot be taught in one or another language can be communicated through media.[4]

It is the interrelationship of materials to activities and to teacher strategies that makes up the individual lesson plan. The lesson plan becomes the extension of the goals and objectives and it is the concrete expression of these. A sample lesson plan will be given at the end of this chapter.

Step 8: Evaluation

No unit plan is complete without an evaluation scheme to measure the extent to which students have been able to master the information that has been transmitted to them. The question is what is to be evaluated; what approaches to be used; and if the evaluation scheme involves a self-evaulation for the teacher.[5]

The point is that evaluation as I see it means being able to go back to the rationale and finding its justification to be valid. Some of the suggested approaches to measure whether the goals and objectives are achieved are the following:

a) Self-evaluation : oral assessment, checklist
b) Learner's evaluation : oral assessment, written assignment, checklist
c) Peer evaluation : scheme developed by group
d) Norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing
e) Interview
f) Observations

The evaluation may be summative or formative or take an eclectic approach as well. It is the evaluation of a unit plan which will yield information on the relationship of intent to the desired education result. If the correlation is high, it can be assumed that the unit has been successful. If the correlation is low, at least there is room for modifying the structure and the materials.

A flow chart for constructing a unit plan according to our suggested format appears in Figure 4. The product as seen here is the completed unit plan while the process is the continually regenerative formulation of each component. Those ideas that cannot be ideally "mapped" out in a one-to-one relationship with a test item can be discarded. Those that do may the information adequately with a given test item can be redefined and incorporated into the curricular program. Such a process would continually weed out those ideas that could not be adapted to the classroom situation.

Step 9: References

All of the references used in unit plans and lesson plans can be listed at

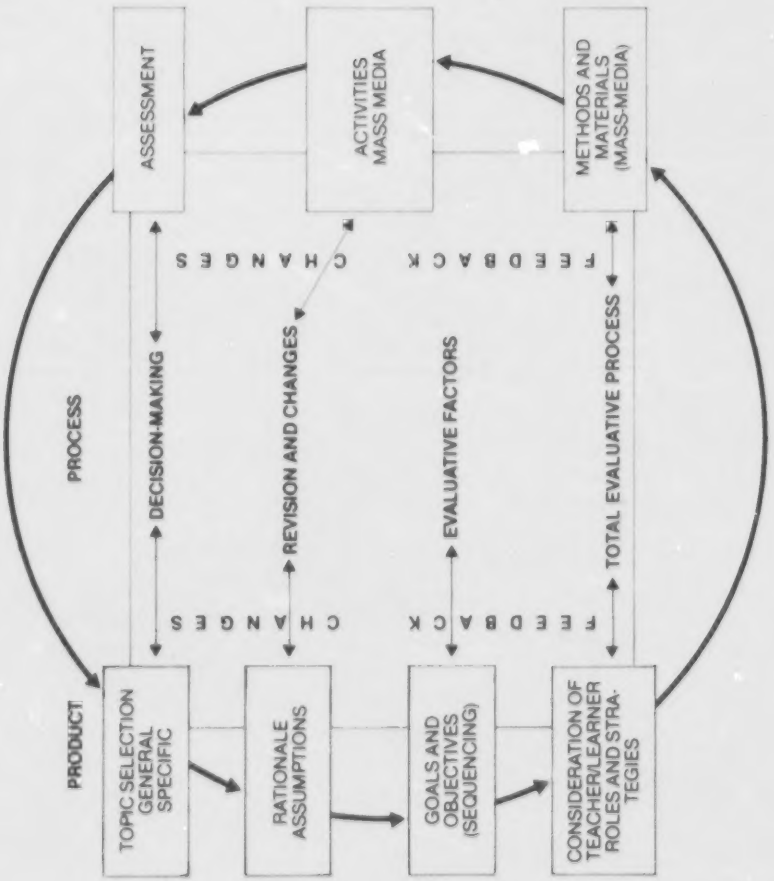
[4]See chapter 3 for further elaboration on this topic.
[5]Chapter 5 addresses this issue more specifically.

this point. These references are sources pertaining to the reading activities and exercises that the teacher and students rely on.

Unit Plan Sample:

What follows is a sample unit plan based on an aspect of folklore: the folk tale and the characterization of the fool. This unit has already covered the different oral-tradition narrative types. The folk tale and its structure has already been discussed and analyzed, and the students are now learning some of the characteristics of the fool in the folk tale.

FIGURE 4
FLOW CHART ON UNIT PLAN



UNIT PLAN No. 5

TOPIC

"The Fool" as a motif of the folk tale

Examples: Juan Bobo — Spanish
The Fool and the Mountain — Chinese

Duration: 3-5 class periods

Grade Level: High school, 12 grade
Adapted for other grade levels

RATIONALE

The fool is generally considered to be negative in the context of many folk tales, yet it is the fool who represents that nebulous character that could either become a hero or anti-hero depending on the feats he/she accomplishes. The justification for presenting the fool in this unit as a motif of folklore is to draw upon the student's present knowledge of what he/she considers a fool to be, and to go beyond this definition.

Through a sequential study of the development of the character's personality, his strengths and weaknesses, as well as disposition, the student should be able to develop a broad conceptual listing of character traits derived from reading several different folk tales. The students will begin with only approximations of what a fool is in their estimation, but develop finer distinctions as they move through the data. This may be accomplished by presenting the fool as a stereotype, or as a role in literature and oral tradition. The students can discover that while the fool is generally considered to be stupid, he is also witty and capable of outsmarting others.

ASSUMPTIONS

Empirical Assumptions

Even a unit plan on a folk motif such as the role of a fool needs to relate to the economic and political realities. The fool can be studied in terms of his status in a social class or hierarchy. In reviewing the fool within a social hierarchy, the student can understand what it means to overcome handicaps, and through wit, bring those in power to a position of weakness. More than any other character, the fool can be used to highlight the social expectations of a culture. The economic status of the fool plays an important role in understanding the character. The fool can often move horizontally into other classes through marriage, through inheritance, through manipulation, through breaking a spell, through knowing the answer to a riddle, etc. While fantasy and myth enter into this, the point is that the fool uses that for which is he most scorned by others — his head.

Historical Assumptions

Historically, the fool has undergone a great many characterizations. In the Middle Ages, the fool represented a source of

entertainment, i.e. fools as jugglers, court jesters, as gossip bearers, etc. The fool was also linked to rural settings. However, in later periods it was through the ramblings of the fool that the theme of the country and town or country and city became expressed. The fool is now projected into the present by being described in local and pertinent settings, i.e. the village idiot, the village fool, the country bumpkin, etc. The fool can serve to link both the historical past and present. Since he represents a slice of reality, he can be used in bilingual settings to arrive at the universal characterizations of "fools" in general.

ASSUMPTIONS

Cultural Assumptions

The historical assumptions are also linked with the cultural assumptions. An assumption that underlies the presentation of this character is that a fool is not simply a static being. He may often fall into the category of being a hero or an anti-hero.

The complexities of the labeling process can be grasped by students upon seeing the fool as someone who may in the final outcome outwit those who have tried to fool him and are in power. The fool can be placed on a continum between the hero and anti-hero:

Hero ◂ ▸ fool ◂ ▸ Anti-hero

By providing clear conceptual and cultural traits of what a fool appears to be, the teacher will be able to cross cultural backgrounds and influences and provide the students with some generic skills. Students can begin to forge their own understanding of what they consider to be fools in the context of their own traditions and their own reality. In Mexico, for example, to be a fool is to allow oneself to be taken advantage of. Hence the admonitions — "*No seas tonto, menso, zonzo, burro, taimado, lentito, bobo.*"

The fool can also be described as representing a given stratum of culture, i.e. Juan Bobo clearly represents the rural and country bumpkin coming into the city and being able to survive the travails of urban living. Juan Bobo characterizes the rural aspects of Puerto Rico, Mexico, Spain, and other Latin-American countries, and can thus be integrative of Hispanic culture. His behavior along with the language may also bespeak the culture. For example, the use of certain neologisms or folk sayings may be quite descriptive of the area from which he comes. Ideas on his social class, his family background, his ties with the family and community can also be analyzed by focusing on the "cultural baggage," so to speak, that he brings with him. Collective vs. idiosyncratic behavior clusters may be also defined. Questions to be addressed might be:

ASSUMPTIONS

a) Do people from that region express themselves or behave in such ways?
b) Are there differences in the clothing, manners, non-verbal gestures of the character?
c) What underlies Juan Bobo's representation of rural way of life?

Linguistic Assumptions

Likewise, the fool's language patterns are reflective of not only cultural but linguistic assumptions. How will a teacher deal with the question of standard vs. non-standard language varieties? What characterizes the language of Juan Bobo over the language of other cultures' fools?

Ethical or Value Assumptions

Values labeled as good or bad will need to be discussed. In the case of the fool, the teacher will need to elucidate on both the negative and positive aspects of fools. Furthermore, value clarification may be used by teachers when they elucidate on those values which may have cultural and linguistic differences.

Nature of Thinking

The fool's ability to think may be addressed at this point. Students may wish to use associative words for the concepts of thought, cognition, and learning. This is a unique opportunity to demonstrate the variety of meanings attributed to thinking. For example, the student may wish to consider whether the thought processes of the fool are the same as the King, the knave, or the merchant. They may want to address the differences that are apparent, or the similarities that exist.

Whatever approach is used, it may be necessary to present the nature of thinking along Bloom's cognitive or affective taxonomies or combinations of these.

Other Teacher Assumptions

There may be a series of assumptions which do not fall into any of the forementioned categories and which may have a bearing on the development of the unit plan. Teacher experiences, training, and basic knowledge are further considerations to be made. This may be the set of assumptions that reflect idiosyncracies on part of the teacher with regard to the "fool."

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Generally stated the goals and objectives involved in analyzing the story of Juan Bobo would be as follows:

a) to enable the learners to recognize that the fool is a universal motif.
b) to distinguish between a "real fool" as anti-hero and a "fool" as a hero.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

c) to have students draw images of fools they have heard about.
d) to have students collect home and local information on "fools."
e) to have students compare fools with court jesters, peasants, country bumpkins, village idiots, etc.

TEACHER STRATEGIES

The fool can be studied through inductive and deductive methods: As an inductive method, one example is concept development of fool as generic category. What constitutes a fool? a hero? an anti-hero? As a deductive method, one can use the following: giving the word "fool" help students look at the variety of meanings and complexities attributed to such a label. The teacher may use a combination of self-discovery procedures by handing some excerpts from literary readings and having them identify whether the speaker is a hero, an anti-hero, or a fool. Problem solving: Can characters be type-cast as fools? Are there shades of meaning to the term "fool"?

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES

Dramatic: Reading to a large group of students who follow along with a handout. After reading, individual students will discuss characteristics of the fool and talk about their own ideas regarding fools.

Using information from their native language, the students will develop a theme describing a fool from their own backgrounds, collecting the themes for comparison and contrast.

Research Activity: Fool representations. Student research and depictions of fools through drawings and historical research into 16th and 17th century Western and non-Western history.

Writing Activity: Essay on the fool as a hero, anti-hero. Student's own development of folk stories depicting heroes in a similar light.

Play Activity: Enactment of several folk stories, depicting fools with cultural content. Role playing: what the fool might feel at different stages of his quest.

TYPES OF MATERIALS

Handouts: READING—"Juan Bobo"
"Chu the Rogue"
"Quevedo"
"Bertolino"
"Pedro Urdemales"
"Compair Taureau and Jean Malin"

Media Presentations: Overhead projector with laminations
Overlay of different fools

Student Materials: Folk tales brought in by students
Folk tales depicting fools as heroes
Home spun folk tales including fools

EVALUATION

Concept attainment of fool as distinguished from hero, anti-

EVALUATION

hero in folk literature and history. Given time frame, student will perform with 90% accuracy in any of the given tasks.

Student Evaluation
a) Oral assessment
b) Written assessment
c) Combination
d) Student presentation
e) Media presentation

Teacher Evaluation
a) Task completion
b) Oral completion
c) Check list

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Juan Bobo y la Princesa Adivinadora, *The Three Wishes* by Ricardo Alegria, Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., New York: 1969. (Spanish High School Level)

"Bertolino" *Folktales Told Around the World* by Richard M. Dorson, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975. (Italian High School Level)

"Georgios a Megas" *Folktales of Greece*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970. (Greek High School Level)

"Chu the Rogue" *Folktales of China* by Walfren Eberbord, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965. (Chinese High School Level)

Folktales of Mexico by Americo Paredes, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970. (Mexican High School Level)

"Quevedo Works as a Cook" *Folktales around the World*, Richard M. Dorson, University of Chicago Press, 1975. (Peruvian High School)

"Pedro Urdemales Cheats Two Horsemen" *Folktales of Chile* by Yolando Pino-Saavedra, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967. (Chilean High School Level)

"Stories about Pedro de Males Artes" (Portuguese High School Level)

"Stories about Bati-bati" (Cape Verdean High School Level)

Sample Lesson Plan

TOPIC The fool as seen in Story

TIME 2-4 periods

GRADE LEVEL Junior high school and above, depending on the reading materials and the stated objectives.

ORGANIZING IDEAS

1. The "fool" being depicted as a universal character
2. The character traits of the "fool"
3. The absolute term of the "fool"
4. The "fool" in situational contexts such as being wise or silly, being kind or cruel, being generous or selfish, being hard-working or lazy, being poor or rich, being brave or coward, etc.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. Within the first two classes the students will identify the fool in a series of readings through group discussions and then categorize the characteristics that best describe him/her. The purpose of this exercise is to elicit as many positive and negative associations with the term "fool."

2. During the third class, the students will analyze these characteristics, interpret their value and their meaning and place them on a continuum between such extremes as work and play, employment and unemployment, wealth and poverty. The intent here is to show that one term may have different meanings in different situational contexts. There are no absolute terms.

3. By the last session, the students should be able to define the fool in varied contexts through approximate meaning and to write about the fool outside of a narrow meaning without necessarily using negative labels or stereotypes. The goal here is to show students that in certain situations, a traditionally negative character can become identified with more positive character traits, and with greater personality depth. "Flat" characters can become alive depending on how they set out to achieve or master a feat. A fool can therefore have a multitude of meanings:

   a) the fool as a rogue
   b) the fool as a con artist
   c) the fool as a wise man
   d) the fool as the outsmarting young or old man
   e) the fool as the rags to riches story of success

Furthermore, the student can being to understand why it is unfair to stereotype whole groups by individuals with specific characteristics.

4. Students will have collected and brought stories to the class about the fool. They will adapt them to different situations introducing new elements — that is:

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

a) They will tell the stories as they heard them from relatives.
b) They will write them in their original version.
c) They will change the ending by characterizing various types of fools.

TEACHER STRATEGIES

Inductive strategies and having students explore, make research, and write their own stories. This may be a homework assignment or the assignment that concludes the last class session on this topic.

ACTIVITIES

Large group for general discussion.
Small group for description of character traits.
Individual reports for listing character traits.
Large group for assembling data and formulating categories.
Small group for work time.
Individual written reports and presentations.

MATERIALS

Readings: Folk tales depicting fools from several countries. Students will also bring in stories collected in the home. Flannel board with words for categories. Overhead projector/overlays.

EVALUATIONS

Student: Oral assessment. Written report on creation of their own fool story. Peer evaluation.

Teacher: By reading written assignments check for incorporation of new terms for fools, characteristics that were defined, and development of broader concepts.

Follow-up: After discussing stereotyping, continue from the fool to the hero and anti-hero and return to the universal characteristics found in literature and oral tradition among certain type of characters.

REFERENCE

REFERENCE:

Stith Thompson, *The Folk Tale*, New York: Dryden Press, 1946.

Leccion

TEMA

El personaje del "tonto" en "Juan Bobo y la Princesa Adivinadora"

TIEMPO REQUERIDO

De dos a cuatro periodos

NIVEL

Pre-secundaria o secundaria de acuerdo a los materiales que se empleen. Para clases bilingües y clases donde hayan estudiantes de diferentes grupos étnicos y culturaes.

IDEAS PRINCIPALES

1. *El personaje del "tonto" como tipo universal*
2. *Las características comunes del tonto*
3. *La palabra "tonto" como una definición no absoluta*
4. *El "tonto" en determinadas situaciones manifestando varios sentidos de la palabra de acuerdo al contexto en que funciona o ejerce sus aptitudes intelectuales*

   Así es que el tonto se verá haciendo el papel de
   - *Trabajador o haragán*
   - *Crédulo o sagaz*
   - *Malhechor o bienhechor*

OBJETIVO ESPECIFICO

1. En las primeras dos clases, los estudiantes identificarán al personaje que desempeñe el papel de tonto en una serie de lecturas que se discutirán en clase. Cuando los estudiantes hayan identificado las características que lo describen, las categorizaran en grupos. El objetivo de este ejercicio es demostrar la multitud de asociaciones, tanto positivas como negativas, que podrían surgir al hablar del tonto según el contexto.

2. En la tercera clase, los estudiantes analizarán el significado de las características anteriormente identificadas e interpretarán sus valores humanos. Además tratarán de situar al tonto entre los extremos del trabajo y el juego, el empleo y el desempleo, la riqueza y la pobreza. De esta manera, los estudiantes podrán ver cómo una palabra puede tener variedad de significados según diferentes situaciones y contextos, es decir — no existen términos absolutos.

3. En la última sesión, los estudiantes tratarán de definir la palabra "tonto" en varios contextos por medio de palabras o asociaciones que más se aproximen al significado de "tonto." Los estudiantes redactarán un cuento usando al tonto como tema, sin utilizar la definición con que empezaron la unidad. Lo importante es no usar adjetivos o palabras negativas que tiendan a estereotipar.

MODIFICACION DE CONCEPTOS

El objetivo sera enseñar a los estudiantes que en ciertas ocasiones, un personaje que ha sido tradicionalmente vinculado con características negativas o desfavorables, puede llegar a ser conocido a través de un conocimiento más profundo de su personalidad con características favorables. Caracteres planos cobran vida de acuerdo a la hazaña que

MODIFICACION DE CONCEPTOS

tratan de llevar a cabo. Un tonto, por lo tanto, puede ser analizado en una multitud de sentidos:

a) el tonto como pícaro
b) el tonto como abusado, vivo
c) el tonto como sabio
d) el tonto como joven o viejo muy capaz
e) el tonto como travieso
f) el tonto como ejemplo de hombre de éxito

La intención de este tipo de elaboración sobre una serie de palabras es hacer que los estudiantes comprendan lo injusto que es estereotipar a todo un grupo debido a características atribuidas a ciertos individuos dentro de una cultura.

4. Los estudiantes traerán cuentos de sus casas ilustrando los conceptos estudiados en clase. Al redactar los cuentos, los adaptarán introduciendo nuevos elementos. Es decir:

a) Relatarán los cuentos como los escucharon de sus familiares.
b) Los redactarán.
c) Cambiarán el final caracterizando a varios tipos de tontos, e.g. el tonto-crédulo, el tonto-pícaro, el tonto-valiente, el tonto-cobarde, etc.

METODOS

Métodos de inducción a través de los cuales los estudiantes podrán explorar e investigar mediante la escritura de sus propios cuentos. Esta asignatura puede ser tarea para la casa o trabajo final de la unidad.

ACTIVIDADES

Grupo general para discusión
Grupos individuales para descripción de características
Informes individuales que caractericen al tonto
Grupo general para juntar información y formar categorías
Grupo individual para desarrollar el tema
Presentaciones e informes individuales

MATERIALES

Lectura de cuentos de varios países en los cuales el tonto aparezca. Los estudiantes también traerán cuentos de sus casas. Uso de un flanelógrafo y de fichas lingüísticas. Proyector con láminas.

EVALUACION

Del alumno: *Asesoramiento oral. Informe escrito sobre la creación de sus propios cuentos. Evaluación por parte del grupo.*

Del maestro/maestra: *A través de las lecturas y los trabajos escritos, el maestro o maestra verá si los estudiantes asimilaron los nuevos significados y sentidos de la palabra "tonto." Desarrollo de las características positivas. Desarrollo de conceptos mayores.*

Continuación: *Partiendo del tema del tonto como ejemplo de estereotipo, se puede pasar al tema del héroe y del antihéroe señalando las características universales que las*

EVALUACION

tradiciones orales y la literatura muestran. A la vez se podrá obtener mediante pláticas con los estudiantes los conocimientos que ellos tengan acerca de los temas para reafirmar los nuevos conceptos.

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The Foolish Old Man Who Moved the Mountain

— Yu Kung Ye Shang

Once upon a time, there was a 90 year-old man at a place called North Mountains. In front of his house stood two adjoining mountains covering 700 square miles. Traveling villagers had to struggle along treacherous and winding mountain paths and endured a great deal of hardship. Therefore, the old man decided to move the mountains.

Everyday, he took out his pick and shovel and moved a little bit of the earth. The villagers laughed at him and tried to dissuade him from the impossible task. The old man would not listen and persisted faithfully every day. The villagers named him "The foolish old man." The old man replied, "If I die, I have my sons; after my sons, I have my grandsons; grandsons bear more sons. Yet the mountain does not multiply. Why then shouldn't the mountain be flattened?"

The old man's remark was heard by the God of Snakes, who in turn reported to the God of Heavens. The God of Heavens was moved by the old man's determination and ordered the Goddess of Er to fulfill his wish. The two sons of the Goddress then moved the two mountains, one towards the East and one towards the West. Since then, the villagers have been able to travel freely without any hindrance.

(Translated by Mae Chu-Chang)

Discussion

1. What role did the foolish old man play in the folktale?
2. Examine the old man's remark carefully. What does it tell you about Chinese culture?
3. What is the moral of the story?

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Procedures in Curriculum Evaluation

Mae Chu-Chang

Foreword

The preceding chapters have focused on the considerations to be had in the designing and the development of bilingual curriculum. A handbook on curriculum design can not be complete unless evaluation procedures are included.

This chapter outlines the procedural steps for evaluating such curriculum. There are many different approaches to curriculum evaluation (Tyler, 1972); the one proposed here is a rational approach to evaluation.

The purpose of curriculum evaluation, according to Johnson (1976) is to attempt to answer the basic question, "Does 'X' work as intended?" where 'X' is the product or the curriculum package in question. The five words in the question capture the essence of evaluation concisely and merit closer examination and analysis. In order to answer the question, the evaluator needs to be able to specify what constitutes "work" (the outcome), what is "intended" (the objectives) as well as what is "X" (the curriculum package). Furthermore, the conjunction "as" indicates a relationship that means "the same" or "similar" and connotes a dependent relationship between "X", "work", and "intended". The same question applies to the evaluation of bilingual curriculum except that in addition we should ensure that the "intended" takes into account the cultural and linguistic background of the learner. The answer to this question is not usually a simple yes or no. Rather, the curriculum evaluator attempts to point out the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum materials and makes recommendations for the improvement of each component.

With the essential question in mind, we can now proceed to outline the basic steps in curriculum evaluation.

General Curriculum Evaluation

Step 1. What is "X" — Identify and describe the various components that make up the curriculum package

The first and foremost task in evaluation is to concisely describe what constitutes the curriculum or the product that we wish to evaluate. An adequate description of a curriculum package for evaluation purposes should include the following:

A. Objectives — what we want to achieve
B. Theoretical background — the nature of the subject to be taught
C. Instructional processes — what the teacher does with the package
D. Contents of the package
E. Test — A set of test items to measure all of the above.

Although those components are necessary for evaluation purposes, they are not always readily detectable. The evaluator may need to sift through a great deal of verbiage in the "Teacher's Handbook," or "Teacher's Guide" to arrive at the objectives. When these components are absent, objectives have to be inferred from the content of the package or the test items. Ideally, there should be close correspondence between all of the components above. For any strong inference to be drawn from the evaluation effort, there must be a one-to-one relationship at least between objectives, instructional processes and test items. An example of a curriculum where all components are logically related is shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
COMPONENTS FOR CURRICULUM EVALUATION

A. GENERAL OBJECTIVE
After completing the two activities of Lesson One, the student will know that the Japanese attitude toward nature evolved from ancient beliefs and customs and affects Japanese visual arts as seen in three aesthetic principles:
   a. Preservation of inherent qualities in materials,
   b. Simplicity,
   c. Asymmetry

B. THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE
The Japanese attitude is that humans are a part of nature and should love and respect the natural world. This attitude has affected the aesthetic principles of Japanese art, which are:
   a. Preservation of special qualities found in nature,
   b. Simplicity in terms of "less is more,"
   c. Asymmetry in shape and arrangements

C. INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESSES
   a. Slide and tape presentation
   b. Discussion
   c. Lecture
   d. Question and Answer Period
   e. Field Trip
   f. Observation of natural elements by students

D. CONTENT
Pictures and verbal cues depicting man surrounded by nature: pictures and verbal cues to alert students' attention to focus on color, texture, lines, shape of trees, rocks, leaves, and furniture. Student book: *The Way of Nature and Art.*

E. TEST ITEMS FROM THE PROCEDURES OF THE ACTIVITY
Q — "What has been preserved in this Japanese furniture?"
A — "The wood's natural color and grain lines"
Q — "Can you see each rock on the beach? Can you see the shape of each tree? How could you make it easier to see them?"
A — "Remove some of the things, clear away some of the flowers and leaves."
Q — "How are they (any two objects) alike?"
A — "Both are round"

After showing symmetrical and asymmetrical objects, stu-

dents are to look for differences in shape.

SOURCE: CEMREL Aesthetic Education Program, Japan: An Approach to Aesthetics Experimental Version, St. Louis: CEMREL, Inc., 1973.

Step 2. Establish the relationship between separable components in a one-to-one fashion

After having outlined the objectives, product components, and outcomes, we might then construct a table indicating the relationship between each of the components. For example, for a set of curriculum materials for teaching language arts in Chinese, there may be 100 objectives, one of which is that the student should be able to recognize 250 Chinese characters after using the materials for a year.

We may find for this objective the following materials that are directly related to it:

A. Flashcards
B. Readers
C. Teacher's Handbook

After having compared all the objectives with all the product components and outcomes, we will be able to find where the curriculum is lacking or what is emphasized. This procedure was followed, for example, in the case of a preschool program which consisted of a set of resource units with activities for teachers to use in classrooms. After mapping the contents of the units to the objectives, it is found that only 60 of the objectives were covered by activities. Therefore, if the teacher had relied on the resource unit alone for classroom activities, all the stated objectives would not have been met.

Step 3. Check to see that the objectives, instructional processes, content and outcomes are at the same level of abstraction

A set of test batteries should normally be included with the curriculum packet. The test items have to be directly linked to the objectives and the content. Furthermore, the objectives, curricular activities and test items require a comparable degree of abstraction. An example of incongruency between the objective, the curricular activities, and the test items at their level of abstraction is shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2

OBJECTIVE/EVALUATION INCONGRUENCY

OBJECTIVE	ACTIVITIES	TEST ITEMS
To be able to identify Franco-American culture.	The students listen to a record of Rudy Vallee.	Rudy Vallee is a: a. Singer b. Composer c. Artist d. Poet

In this example, the objective is at a macro-level, whereas the test item is at a micro-level. "Franco-American Culture" relates to something much broader than the identification of one Franco-American singer. To

modify the curriculum in this particular case, it would be easier to bring the objective to a smaller scope than to bring the test item to measure identification of "Franco-American Culture." The objective may be rephrased as "the students will be able to recognize Rudy Vallee as a Franco-American singer."

Step 4. Pilot test the materials in a classroom setting before publication and dissemination

It is a common practice to try out a set of curriculum materials in the field before publication and dissemination. Pilot testing is a specific instance of formative evaluation whereby an a priori causal model is put to a test. Since not all the components of the package, "X," are necessarily implemented in the classroom, pre- and post-tests of the students do not completely lend themselves to answer the question, "Does "X" work as intended?" Teacher variation in the use of the curriculum materials rather than the materials themselves may result in changes of scores on pre- and post-tests. A chart documenting degree of implementation can provide useful information in the revision of the curriculum. It is therefore necessary to devise some sort of record-keeping system. For example, one classroom teacher may use both flashcards and readers all the time; whereas, another teacher may use readers most of the time and flashcards infrequently. The differential use of materials may result in different scores. The evaluator should then carefully examine what caused the difference. If it is found that the use of readers alone did not cause a significant difference in the test scores, the developer might consider abandoning the flashcards since use of readers alone accomplish the objectives more economically.

Formative vs. Summative Evaluation

Formative evaluation is done at various intervals during the development phase and provides the developers with input to enable revision to take place prior to the finished product. The construction of a casual model is particularly helpful so that any components which do not fit in with the model can be dispensed within the beginning and improvements to the curriculum can be made by modifying the components or the objectives.

Summative evaluation is an appraisal of the final product and is usually of no use to the curriculum developer, but provides information to the consumer. This type of information is usually used for promotion of the product rather than for its improvement.

Bilingual Considerations

Curriculum evaluation is a logical process whereby one tests for internal consistency between what is claimed by the developers, what is actually in the package, and its effectiveness when implemented in the classroom. The rationale behind the process is culture-free. However, when evaluating bilingual curriculum, the evaluator should ensure that the goals and objectives take into account the cultural and linguistic back-

ground of the bilingual learner as dealt within the preceding chapters. Duelfer in chapter 2 has proposed the inclusion of a cultural domain and a language domain in the construction of goals and objectives for bilingual curriculum. Since the theory of evaluation dictates that there should be a one-to-one correspondence between objectives, instructional processes, content and test items; the cultural and linguistic considerations as stated in the objectives must be present in a corresponding manner in the instructional process, content and test items.

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APPENDIX

Materials Evaluation Checklist

Introduction

The Materials Evaluation Checklist has been compiled by the staff of the National Assessment and Dissemination Center for the initial assessment of educational materials submitted for publication or review. Materials for publication originate from Materials Development Centers in the National Title VII Network and include items such as textbooks, manuals, filmstrips, and tape recordings. The National Network is committed to the production of materials which are pedagogically and technically sound as well as linguistically and culturally relevant for bilingual students in American classrooms. It is with the intention of fulfilling its commitment that the NADC staff has compiled the Checklist for use in initial assessment which, as its title implies, is the first in a series of quality appraisals. The version of the Checklist presented here is merely the most recent and, consequently, not the final version.

It may be of interest to point out that the results of initial assessment through the Checklist play an important role in the second phase of the assessment process, which is that of pilot testing. That role consists in generating specific questions which may be raised regarding materials in the course of pilot testing. Such questions may refer to any of the four aspects previously mentioned, i.e., pedagogical, technical, linguistic, and cultural. The questions are incorporated into teacher and student feedback forms which are commonly employed in pilot testing.

The Checklist, it must be emphasized, does not constitute a set of standards to be observed by Materials Development Centers in the creation of curriculum materials. Rather, it is a compilation of those considerations that NADC staff believe could or should be taken into account in the examination of a wide range of bilingual education materials. During the assessment of any single piece of material, therefore, it is not necessarily expected that all items on the Checklist will apply. For example, in a supplementary reader an assessor would not anticipate detailed lists of teaching activities keyed to objectives and, therefore, in such a case would not apply Checklist items regarding objectives and activities. The assessor, thus, is compelled to judge which Checklist items should be employed in each individual instance.

Individuals or groups who wish to use the Materials Evaluation Checklist for their own purposes may have to alter or adapt it. In any case, to make useful assessments requires that Checklist users write out their comments, when appropriate, in the spaces provided on the Checklist in addition to indicating their choices on the rating scales. To make valid assessments, Checklist users may have to consult with subject matter specialists, individuals who have deeper insight into a particular ethnic group, specialists in printing and design, or even the authors of the material.

It is evident that proper use of the Checklist may require much work, research, and thought on the part of the user. As suggested above, materials assessment is an activity which is perhaps better performed by the Checklist user in conjunction with others rather than in isolation. Further, the labor of assessment must bear practical results, such as suggestions for revision, a determination of the relevance of materials for one's curriculum or students, and the potential cost factors for publication. In the final analysis, the Materials Evaluation Checklist will be validated by the accuracy, consistency, and usability of the information that its users will obtain for their stated purposes.

Assessor: _____ Date: _____

I. General Information

A. Description

1. Author _____
2. Title _____
3. Medium (check all that apply)
   - ☐ book ☐ textbook ☐ filmstrip ☐ diagram
   - ☐ chart series or set ☐ record ☐ manipulatives
   - ☐ film ☐ kit ☐ illustration ☐ map
   - ☐ game ☐ slides ☐ other (specify) _____
4. Statement of responsibility (developer)
   - ☐ project ☐ network center ☐ commercial
   - ☐ other (who?) _____
5. Edition _____
6. Place/Publisher/Distributor _____
   _____
7. Date of Publication and copyright _____
   _____
8. Physical description
   a. If a book:
      number of pages _____
      number of color illustrations _____
      number of black and white illustrations _____
      type of binding or cover _____
      size of pages _____
      pages are printed ☐ one side only; ☐ back-to-back
      further description: _____
      _____
      _____

   b. If a film:
      - ☐ color ☐ black and white
      - ☐ sound
      - ☐ accompanying record
      - ☐ tape
      - ☐ manual
      - ☐ 8mm ☐ 16mm

      time _____
      further description: _____
      _____
      _____

   c. If a film strip or slide collection:

☐ color ☐ black and white
number of frames or slides _____
☐ accompanying record
☐ tape
☐ manual
time _____
further description _____

d. For other types of materials, or additional components to materials described in a, b, and c, give complete physical description

9. Notes
a. Earlier titles _____
b. Variations on title _____
c. Related works ("based on . . .") _____
d. Country of original release _____
e. Summary of contents

f. Titles of component parts and accompanying materials _____

g. Cost per student
consumable (yearly cost) _____
nonconsumable _____

h. Detailed index (attach to this form)

B. Classification

1. Language(s) used (Check all that apply.)
☐ English ☐ Chinese ☐ Other (specify) _____
☐ Spanish ☐ Portuguese ☐ Other _____
☐ French ☐ Korean
☐ Italian ☐ Japanese
☐ Greek ☐ Vietnamese
☐ Russian ☐ Hebrew

2. Regional or subgroup variety of language

_____

_____

3. Cultural group(s) or subgroup(s) for which material is intended by developer:

_____

_____

_____

4. Curriculum area
   - ☐ mathematics
   - ☐ reading
   - ☐ science
   - ☐ social studies
   - ☐ inter-disciplinary
   - ☐ other (specify) _____
   - ☐ 2nd language
   - ☐ language arts

5. Grade level(s) intended by the developer

_____

6. Age level(s) intended by developer

_____

7. Special group(s) intended by the developer (e.g., gifted, slow learners, multilingual, etc.)

_____

8. Curriculum role
   - ☐ basic text
   - ☐ remedial
   - ☐ reference
   - ☐ supplementary text
   - ☐ curriculum guide
   - ☐ workbook
   - ☐ other (specify) _____

9. User (Indicate primary (1), secondary (2), and tertiary (3) users.)
   - _____teacher
   - _____student
   - _____parent
   - _____teacher trainee
   - _____teacher aide
   - _____other

II. Content

A. Scope

1. Domain(s) emphasized (Check all that apply.)
   - ☐ cognitive
   - ☐ affective
   - ☐ psychomotor

2. Cognitive level(s) stressed

	None	Little (less than ⅓)	Some (between ⅓-⅔)	Much (more than ⅔)
knowledge	☐	☐	☐	☐
comprehension	☐	☐	☐	☐
application	☐	☐	☐	☐
analysis	☐	☐	☐	☐
synthesis	☐	☐	☐	☐
evaluation	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Content coverage
   - ☐ narrow (concentrates on one or two aspects of a discipline)
   - ☐ moderate in scope
   - ☐ broad (covers a great deal of content in one discipline or among disciplines)

4. Treatment of material is
   - ☐ superficial (little or no detail)
   - ☐ moderately deep (some detail)
   - ☐ in-depth (considerable detail)

5. The content covered is
   - ☐ accurate
   - ☐ generally accurate, some inaccuracies
   - ☐ often inaccurate

6. Is the content relevant to the students' experiences and cultural background (e.g., stories and examples concern people and events to which students can relate)?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

7. Is the content relevant to the students' age/grade level (e.g., stories and examples concern people and events which are of interest and can be understood by students of this age)?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

B. Organization

1. Is the division of the content into units (e.g., chapters, sections, units) logical and appropriate?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

2. The content is sequenced
   - ☐ chronologically
   - ☐ from simple to complex ideas
   - ☐ from general to specific ideas
   - ☐ developmentally
   - ☐ from ideas to concrete examples
   - ☐ from concrete examples to a main thought
   - ☐ Other (specify) _____

3. Is the sequence appropriate?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

4. The sequence of presentation for the materials

is	*should be*	
☐	☐	required by developer
☐	☐	recommended by the developer
☐	☐	implied by the structure of the materials
☐	☐	left entirely to the user

III. Methodology

A. Rationale, Goals, and Objectives

1. The rationale is
   - ☐ specified by the producer
   - ☐ not specified but easily inferred
   - ☐ unclear

2. General instructional outcomes (learner goals) are
   - ☐ specified by the producer
   - ☐ not specified but easily inferred
   - ☐ neither apparent nor obvious

3. Specific instructional outcomes (learner objectives) are
   - ☐ provided for each goal
   - ☐ provided for some goals

5. Are the materials logically related to the rationale, goals, and objectives?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

6. Are the goals and objectives appropriate for the target population?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

B. Instructional Strategy

1. The instructional strategy is (Check all that apply.)
   - ☐ didactic
   - ☐ discovery
   - ☐ experiential
   - ☐ other (specify)

2. In general, the materials reflect an instructional strategy which is
   - ☐ inductive
   - ☐ deductive
   - ☐ a combination of the two

3. The instructional strategy which is specified or implicit is
   - ☐ highly structured toward rigid outcomes
   - ☐ loosely structured toward rigid outcomes
   - ☐ highly structured toward flexible outcomes
   - ☐ loosely structured toward flexible outcomes

4. The instructional strategy
   - ☐ only requires an interaction between the learner and the product
   - ☐ requires or indicates interactions among learners

☐ not provided

4. Are the rationale, goals, and objectives logically related to each other?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ Somewhat
   ☐ No

   ☐ requires interaction between teacher and learner

5. Is the instructional strategy (specified or implied by the organization of the material) appropriate for the target population?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ Somewhat
   ☐ No

6. The materials are designed for
   ☐ large groups (greater than 10)
   ☐ small groups
   ☐ individuals
   ☐ flexible use

If individuals, answer questions 7-9.
If not for individuals, skip to Section C.

7. Do the materials have various points of entry for students with different knowledge, aptitudes, or interest?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

8. If various points of entry are available, who decides where students will

begin their work?
- ☐ Teacher
- ☐ Student
- ☐ Diagnostic Test
- ☐ Other (specify) _____

9. Does the material allow students to proceed at their own rates, or must all students use the material at the same rate?
   - ☐ Each student uses material at own rate.
   - ☐ Students are grouped. Within each group, students proceed at the same rate, but the rate of each group differs.
   - ☐ All students use material at the same rate.
   - ☐ Not specified by developers.

C. Teacher's Role

1. Before using this product most teachers would require
   - ☐ additional training or instruction
   - ☐ a great deal of time to study the product
   - ☐ a short study period

2. A teacher's manual is
   - ☐ provided, but not necessary
   - ☐ provided, and is necessary
   - ☐ not provided, and not necessary
   - ☐ not provided, but necessary

3. If provided, the teacher's manual is
   - ☐ well suited to the product's intended uses
   - ☐ moderately suited to the product's intended uses
   - ☐ poorly suited to the product's intended uses
   - ☐ not provided

4. This product is best used
   - ☐ with continuous teacher supervision
   - ☐ with some teacher supervision after giving instructions
   - ☐ with little or no teacher supervision

_____

_____

_____

D. Student Exercises and Activities

1. Are exercises and activities for students provided in the materials themselves?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

_____

_____

2. Are the exercises and activities for students provided in the teacher's manual?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No
   - ☐ No teacher's manual

_____

_____

If no to both 1 and 2, skip to section E.
If yes to 1 and/or 2, answer questions 3-7.

3. Are the exercises and activities relevant to the material?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

_____

_____

_____

4. Are the exercises and activities consistent with the methodology?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

_____

_____

_____

5. Are the exercises and activities
   - ☐ very varied?
   - ☐ somewhat varied?

☐ quite similar?

6. Are there enough exercises and activities?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

7. Are the instructions for the exercises and activities clear?
   ☐ Yes, for all
   ☐ Yes, for some
   ☐ No

E. Evaluation

1. Type of Evaluation (Check all that apply.)
   ☐ End of chapter tests
   ☐ Quizzes
   ☐ Pretests
   ☐ Posttests
   ☐ Informal observation
   ☐ Formal observation
   ☐ Other (specify)

2. Are the tests relevant to the objectives?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

3. Are the tests easy to administer?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

4. Are the tests easy to score?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

5. Is there an objective scoring system?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

6. Do the tests provide immediate feedback to students?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

IV. Bilingual Concerns

A. Language

1. Is the difficulty level of the vocabulary appropriate for the intended age/grade level?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No, the vocabulary is too easy
   - ☐ No, the vocabulary is too difficult

2. Is the vocabulary (e.g., idioms, cliches, words, expressions) appropriate for the intended cultural group or subgroup?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

3. Any other comments on vocabulary, idioms, cliches, words, or expressions?

4. Is the sentence structure appropriate for the intended age/grade level?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No, sentence structure is too simple
- ☐ No, sentence structure is too complex

5. Is the sentence structure appropriate for the intended cultural group or subgroup?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

6. Any other comments on sentence structure?

7. Is the morphology of the language proper for the intended use of the material?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Generally proper
   - ☐ No

8. Is the syntax of the language proper for the intended use of the material?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Generally proper
   - ☐ No

9. In general, the language is:

Authentic	1	2	3	4	5	Not authentic
Formal	1	2	3	4	5	Informal
Regional	1	2	3	4	5	Universal

B. Culture

1. What cultural context is depicted in the material (i.e., in stories, pictures, examples, activities)?

2. Are the cultures/cultural groups depicted authentically?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

3. Are depictions, if any, of the cultures/cultural groups free from offensive stereotyping?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

4. Is the material free from sex bias?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

5. Is the material free from racial bias?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No

6. Are social issues depicted objectively?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No
   - ☐ Not applicable

7. Are political issues depicted objectively?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No
   - ☐ Not applicable

8. Are religious practices depicted objectively?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

☐ Not applicable

_____

_____

9. Any other comments on cultural issues?

_____

_____

_____

_____

V. Appearance

1. Is the product attractive?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

   _____

   _____

2. Are graphics and illustrations attractive?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

   _____

   _____

3. Are graphics and illustrations relevant to the content?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat
   - ☐ No

   _____

   _____

4. Is print legible and large enough for the intended readers?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ No, print is often illegible
   - ☐ No, print is often too small
   - ☐ No, print is difficult to read for some other reason

     (specify): _____

     _____

     _____

5. Does the product seem to be durable?
   - ☐ Yes
   - ☐ Somewhat

☐ No

_____

_____

VI. Additional Comments, Recommendations, Summary.

do
I do not recommend this product for pilot testing without further revisions.

Signature: _____

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FEEDBACK INFORMATION FORM

Feedback Information Form

Directions:

This questionnaire is designed to allow you to record your reactions to the Teacher Handbook you have read. As a possible user and teacher or instructional aide, you are in the best position to judge the value of the materials presented and to offer constructive advice for making whatever changes you feel are important. Please respond to every question; circle the appropriate response. If you need additional room for the open-ended questions, please write the answers on separate pieces of paper. Please tear out these pages and mail them to:

Martha Montero, Editor
Boston University
Bilingual Resource and Training Center
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1. Does the handbook provide an easily understandable discussion of the topics?	No	1	2	3	4	5	Explicit and clear
2. How clear are the authors in setting forth their objectives?	Not clear	1	2	3	4	5	Very clear
3. How relevant are the objectives set forth?	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	To a great extent
4. What is the general quality of the content?	Very poor	1	2	3	4	5	Very good
5. To what extent is the content parallel to present and future needs of teachers and instructional aides?	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	To a great extent
6. Is the scope of the content coverage for the materials appropriate?	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	To a great extent
7. How useful is the content to your specific needs?	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	To a great extent
8. Is there any content in the material that should be deleted (for reasons of inaccuracies, objectionable or irrelevant content, etc.)? Please identify. Use a separate sheet for further comments.	_____						
9. Is there any content that should be changed or added to improve the material in this handbook? Please identify. Use a separate sheet for further comments.	_____						

10. In general, is the language in the handbook clear?	No	1	2	3	4	5	Yes
11. In general, is the handbook technically accurate?	No	1	2	3	4	5	Yes
12. In general, do you foresee any difficulties in using this handbook? Please elaborate in the *Comments* section.	No	1	2	3	4	5	Yes
13. In general, could the suggested strategies or techniques be easily incorporated into classrooms considering a variety of teaching styles?	No	1	2	3	4	5	Yes
14. In general, what is your overall judgement of the physical and technical quality of this handbook?	Very poor	1	2	3	4	5	Excellent
15. In general, to what degree would you recommend that this handbook be used?	Not recommended	1	2	3	4	5	Highly recommended

Analyst

Please list the following:

1. Title: _____
2. Grade level: _____ primary, _____ intermediate, _____ secondary, _____ college or university
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Additional comments may be submitted on a separate sheet.

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